


1971

Teaching social studies from a global viewpoint

Janet Hays Clemmer
Portland State University

Let us know how access to this document benefits you.

Follow this and additional works at: http://pdxscholar.library.pdx.edu/open_access_etds

 Part of the [Educational Assessment, Evaluation, and Research Commons](#), [Educational Methods Commons](#), [International and Comparative Education Commons](#), and the [Social and Philosophical Foundations of Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Clemmer, Janet Hays, "Teaching social studies from a global viewpoint" (1971). *Dissertations and Theses*. Paper 1405.

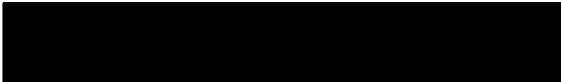
[10.15760/etd.1404](#)

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations and Theses by an authorized administrator of PDXScholar. For more information, please contact pdxscholar@pdx.edu.

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF Janet Hays Clemmer for the
Master of Arts in Teaching in Social Science presented
July 28, 1971.

Title: Teaching Social Studies from a Global Viewpoint.

APPROVED BY MEMBERS OF THE THESIS COMMITTEE:


Charles M. White, Chairman


Forbes W. Williams


Frederick L. Schuman

The need for preparing our youth to live in an inter-dependent world on this finite planet has become urgent since the beginning of the nuclear age at the end of World War II. There is a need to extend the loyalty of the citizen for the nation-state to human needs seen from a global view. The involvement of the United States in the international community already is extensive because of its predominant power. This involvement is not reflected in our education, either from the amount of time devoted to social studies in our schools or in the emphasis on international relations in that curriculum.

To achieve the global view which our changing society demands, it is suggested that some unifying concepts be chosen

which cross the various social science disciplines, namely, the concepts of change (both violent and non-violent), conflict, authority or power, order, freedom and responsibility. These concepts enable the teacher, using a problem-solving approach, to raise questions which make values explicit, and provide flexibility in subject matter and range of student ability. In a global context, the following specific goals would be encouraged: overcome ethnocentrism, recognize the diversity of faces that the U.S. presents to the world, seek a trans-national view based on human rights, emphasize the problem rather than the institution, and seek foreign points of view in source materials.

During the 1960s there have been some innovations in both subject matter and method in teaching social studies, ranging from entire school systems to single schools and classes, and there are a number of new curricula materials coming out of projects funded by both government and private sources. This thesis has identified a number of these with the idea that the teacher who is interested in presenting a global orientation now has a growing number of tools to choose from. He need not wait to construct a new curriculum but can supplement and re-orient his approach in his own classroom.

However, this implies that the teacher has a global view already. Opportunities for foreign studies are becoming widespread and, hopefully, more and more teachers will feel they are an essential part of their preparation. Unfortunately,

there is very little course preparation for the global view at the college level, where the largest proportion of teachers will develop--or not develop--an international awareness. The community at the state or local level can often be of considerable help in encouraging this kind of experience for its teachers.

It is probable that the more activist role of today's student has been a factor in the trend toward using the inquiry, or discovery, method in the classroom. Certainly, this method has the advantage, for a global view, of using concepts which can present controversial subject matter in an open-ended way. It uses the techniques of a scientific approach and enables the social studies to introduce more social science findings of current global concern. Discussion of values becomes an essential element. Such discussion begins with the student's experience, and by exposing him to a clash of personal beliefs there is evidence that motivation is increased and a possible shift in attitudes occurs.

The teacher who aims to teach from a global viewpoint will need help, both in keeping abreast of the current curricula and in having available the most recent findings of social science and educational research which could affect the attitudes of his students. In particular, the area of conflict studies has potential for resolving international problems. The teacher, thus, has a key role in preparing future citizens to meet the changes of a global society.

TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES FROM A GLOBAL VIEWPOINT

by

JANET HAYS CLEMMER

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN TEACHING
Social Science

Portland State University
1971

TO THE OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES:

The members of the Committee approve the thesis of
Janet Hays Clemmer presented July 28, 1971.

[REDACTED]
Charles M. White, Chairman

[REDACTED]
Forbes W. Williams

[REDACTED]
Frederick L. Schuman

APPROVED:

[REDACTED]
Whitney Bates, Graduate Coordinator
College of Social Science

[REDACTED]
David T. Clark, Dean of Graduate Studies

July 30, 1971

Science is often described as of a dual character...Social studies possesses, in my opinion, a triple character. It, too, represents a body of knowledge and a method of study. In addition, it is a study of the alternatives facing mankind and how values influence the decisions made.

Ronald O. Smith

The ideal curriculum must, then, be built around the great issues, principles and values that a society deems worthy of the continuing concern of its members.

Jerome Bruner

The essence of freedom lies in the individual's opportunity to choose. But if the totality of free choice is to result in the welfare of the community and the strength of the nation, such decisions must be informed judgments.

Roy A. Price

For peace is a process, a way of solving problems.

John F. Kennedy

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER

I	THE NEED FOR A GLOBAL VIEW	1
II	WHAT IS A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE?	15
III	TOOLS OF CHANGE: CURRICULA AND TEACHER	
	A. School-Initiated Innovation	25
	B. Curricular Materials	33
	C. Teacher Education	43
	D. The State's Role	53
	E. The Student's Role	60
IV	THE INQUIRY METHOD AND THE WORLD VIEW	62
V	NEEDED RESEARCH FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES	79
VI	CONCLUSION	87
BIBLIOGRAPHY		89
APPENDIX		
	GLOSSARY	96
	CURRICULA MATERIALS - SOURCES	97

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
I	Aid to Developing Countries - 1968	9
II	Two Contexts for Social Studies	21
III	Fulbright-Hays Program	45
IV	AID Financed University Contracts	48
V	U.S. Citizens doing Study/Research Abroad by Federal Agency	50

CHAPTER I

THE NEED FOR A GLOBAL VIEW

With the advent of the nuclear age at the end of World War II our schools have found themselves increasingly troubled by the question of the extent to which the world view should be presented within the social studies curriculum. C.A. McClelland, Director of the Center for Research on Conflict Resolution, University of Michigan, has said recently,

The effectiveness of the international dimension in education is at a low level. Numerous evaluations...tell this story, almost without exception...Inattentiveness toward public affairs, both domestic and international, is the prevalent condition. In general, the American electorate, the product of universal compulsory public education, has been judged to be deficient in the ability to perform its part¹ under the circumstances of world affairs in the present age.

It should be made clear that for the purposes of this study, a world view is more than the account of the actions of nation-states in their relations to each other, commonly termed "inter-national." When the term "international" is used in what follows, it is because it is in current usage in social studies and "global" is not. There is, however, a supra-national or global viewpoint which our Apollo spacemen vividly brought home to those of us on Spaceship Earth. It lies in a growing awareness of the inter-

¹James M. Becker, "Teaching World Affairs Tomorrow," Intercom, Vol. 9, No. 5, September-October 1967 (Foreign Policy Association, New York, N.Y.) p. 32.

relatedness of all peoples and the finite limits of this planet. National decision-making based on national security had meaning in the past because military means could be used to protect a nation, such as the United States, against aggression while furthering its goals, whether compatible with the other countries involved or not. The increased points of contact produced by expanding populations and rapid communication provide more points of potential and actual conflict of interest among nations and peoples. The difficulty of ensuring security now that nuclear weapons are available makes it desirable to find new ways of approaching international problems. By putting human needs first, e.g. the control of our environment and the non-violent resolution of our conflicts, the role of the nation-state in decision-making may increasingly be recognized as one of cooperation and compromise for global survival. However, our schools as well as those in other countries have produced citizens whose loyalties are primarily limited to the national boundaries. The problem facing the schools is to expand that loyalty to the globe itself, as a means of furthering human survival. "Global" implies that the world is the campus and all its peoples are learners. The school, as an agent of society, exists not only to transmit knowledge of a society's culture and values but provides the self-renewing instrument of adaptation to change. Insofar as it fails in this goal, the society may well fail to survive. "Liberty to choose responsibly calls for an awareness of alternatives and a knowledge of probable consequences."²

²Roy A. Price, New Viewpoints in Social Studies, 28th Year-book, National Council for Social Studies (Washington, D.C., 1958) p. 16.

Interdependence of nations and peoples is a fact. This calls for a new way of looking at a world in which discrete, competitive units are each seeking their own advantage without regard to others. Speed of communication has intensified the awareness of disparity among nations. However, communication has not in turn provided solutions to the disparity. Popular perceptions may become more widespread but if they differ from reality, the chance of conflict is increased without producing measures which deal with that reality. For example, our domestic industry feels threatened by imports so it argues for public support of import quotas. The problem for domestic industry is real, but the other side of reality is the effect on many other United States exports caused by the reduction of buying power for United States goods in foreign countries. Militarily, even the preeminent power of the United States does not allay our fear of a nuclear threat. In the words of U Thant, "All problems are becoming increasingly global... There is no such thing as a national problem..."³ In short, the nation-state, which has been the political organizing unit for three centuries, is no longer serving the functions expected of it.

The "new math" and new curricular developments in the sciences have had their effect in prodding social science educators to re-examine the curriculum, still based, in many states, on the recommendations of a national committee of social scientists in 1916. That report, prepared by the National Education Association,

³U Thant address in Austin, Texas, May 1970 before the International Ex-Students Conference.

"modernized" the social studies curriculum by suggesting the elimination of the one-year course in ancient history, the introduction of a one year course in world history stressing modern times, the formulation of a Problems of Democracy offering, and the accenting of the local community in a course in Civics.⁴ While there have been professional studies since that time, they have not had impact on the curricular organization so much as on the conceptualizing of the content. For example, how to prevent war is one of the gravest issues for the world today. War is a subject which traditionally is included in the discipline of history, although it is closely tied to economics, political science, and scientific technology. Only recently has the analysis of international conflict progressed to the point where it has a teachable subject matter of its own. At the college level, generally, the nature of war is just beginning to be a recognized course of study,⁵ and the resulting preparation of high school teachers reflects the lack of global orientation at the college level. In seeking to provide a way of updating curriculum without a multiplicity of courses, some use of concepts (for example "conflict") is beginning to serve the teacher to bridge the gap between the formal structure of curriculum and the needs of a world in rapid change. Although some curricular up-dating occurred during the 1920s and

⁴Leonard S. Kenworthy, Guide to Social Studies Teaching (Wadsworth Publishing Company, Belmont, California, 1962) p.44.

⁵Studies Toward Peace, A Compendium of Selected Undergraduate and Graduate Courses in Peace and World Order (The Student Forum on International Order and World Peace, New York, N.Y., 1969) p.iv-v.

early 1930s, until the 1960s change in social studies has been slow in coming. The recent application of the inquiry method of the social scientists to social studies has been responsible for new developments in curricula and teaching beginning to take place.⁶ However, uncertainty still exists regarding the organization of content--should it be on the basis of separate disciplines, or along cross-disciplinary lines.

How can public educators expect to produce graduates capable of dealing constructively with the global problems of the future if the curriculum and teaching barely reflect the need for international education? How aware are educators and the general public of the acute need for new approaches to the teaching of social studies? The educational problem is two-fold: finding a new framework for the presentation of subject matter so that the global view is always present; and encouraging the use of methods that reenforce an interdisciplinary approach as the best means of looking at things whole. The evidence is mixed on the degree to which educational institutions are implementing this approach, or whether the general public recognizes the problem.

Public awareness of American involvement in the international community has increased greatly since World War II, as reflected in our foreign policy, but this is not to say how that concern has been expressed. Until World War II we had no formal foreign aid program, no organized world-wide U.S. information program,

⁶Robert L. Ebel, ed., Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (4th Edition, The MacMillan Company, New York, N.Y., 1969) p.1231.

nor CIA. The Agency for International Development (AID), which was a successor to the Marshall Plan, started in 1947, was established to provide economic and technical assistance; the Peace Corps, which started in 1961, has added emphasis on education and community development, and has also added the more intangible effort to provide two-way understandings of different cultures. The passage of the International Education Act in 1966 was intended to help enrich the teaching of world affairs in United States schools by (1) research at regional educational laboratories, (2) establishing school partnerships in every country in the world, (3) bringing foreign teachers as Volunteers to America to share their culture and language, and (4) developing a world teacher exchange. The act was never funded as intended. However, in 1967-8 one hundred teachers were brought to the United States under Volunteers to America, sixty-four of whom were from Africa, Asia and Latin America.⁷

At the same time, roughly 1,650,000 Americans (of whom a million were in uniform) lived and worked abroad by 1958.⁸ Of these, more than 100,000 were employed in civilian pursuits; the remainder included U.S. government employees and military dependents. By 1969 there were 429 major military installations and more than 2,000 minor ones in almost every country and possession of the non-Communist world,⁹ where we had relatively few at the

⁷James M. Becker and Howard D. Mehlinger, eds., International Dimensions in the Social Studies, 38th Yearbook, NCSS (Washington, D.C., 1968) p.37.

⁸Price, op.cit., p.177.

⁹Sunday Oregonian, Nov. 23, 1969, p.13.

end of World War II, and the number of military personnel alone stationed in some twelve to fifteen countries is now (1970) up to 1.5 million.¹⁰ The 1969-70 national budget reflects this concern with United States security when over 50% is earmarked just for current military expense. Three-fourths of the 4300 treaties and other international agreements to which we are a party were signed in the last twenty-five years.¹¹ For instance, following World War II, the United States entered into defense pacts with forty-two nations to which we have pledged support in case of attack.¹²

Although the United Nations is the foremost existing institution working for international security, our financial contribution to it and its specialized agencies' multilateral work in 1970 was \$266 million.¹³ An additional \$386 million was appropriated for other multilateral programs (Inter-American Development Bank, Asian Development Bank, International Development Association) leaving \$2.9 billion for the remainder of our non-military foreign relations budget (2.2% of the total FY 1970 budget). Bilateral

¹⁰ Tristram Coffin, "Washington Window," VISTA, Vol.5, No.6, May-June 1970, p.90.

¹¹ Dean Rusk, The Unseen Search for Peace, Department of State Publication 7985 (G.P.O., Washington, D.C., 1965) p.9.

¹² Brig. Gen. Monro MacCloskey, USAF (ret.), Pacts for Peace, (Richards Rosen Press, Inc., New York, 1967) p.170.

¹³ Friends Committee on National Legislation, Washington Newsletter, March 1971, p.2.

programs still account for over \$2 billion of this amount, largely in American goods and services. The recent (1969) international Pearson commission report set a goal of 1% of the Gross National Product for each industrialized country for economic aid to the developing countries. The United States total in 1968 was 0.5% of our gross GNP.¹⁴ (See Table I) It seems we have not been committed to multilateral diplomacy, but the report of the Peterson Commission released March 4, 1970 is an indication of change. It urges that guidelines for aid recipients be worked out by leading international agencies in order to reduce the impression that American aid is tailored more to its own interests than that of the recipient country.¹⁵

The lack of greater American support for international institutions, in their efforts to meet political and economic problems, raises the question of recognizing our interdependence. It is worth noting here some recent research at the United Nations providing evidence of the wisdom of greater support of all countries for international institutions, as a means of channelling information. In 1963 March and Simon undertook a study of communication at the United Nations as it affected perceptions of reality, inasmuch as differences or inaccuracies in these perceptions are one of the causes of conflict.¹⁶ The study deter-

¹⁴World Almanac, 1970 Edition (Doubleday & Company, New York, N.Y.) p.88,744. The United States GNP in 1968 was \$865.7 billion. U.S. aid to foreign countries totalled \$4.6 billion plus \$126.9 million to international financial institutions.

¹⁵Coffin, op.cit., p.162.

¹⁶Becker and Mehlinger, op.cit., p.70-1.

AID TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES - 1968*
(percentage of Gross National Product)

Australia	.81
Austria	.52
Belgium	1.06 (largely private sources)
Canada	.49
Denmark	.66 (36% given through multilateral agencies)
France	1.16
West Germany	1.14 (64% from private sources; 7% given through multilateral agencies)
Italy	.64 (70% from private sources)
Japan	.65
Netherlands	1.01
Norway	.65
Portugal	.78
Sweden	.47
Switzerland	1.09 (largely private sources)
United Kingdom**	.70 (about equally private and government sources)
United States***	.64 (4½% or \$251 million given through multilateral agencies)

* The following members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation & Development (OECD) provide about 95% of all aid to developing countries.

** The Commonwealth countries include 2/3 of the population of all developing countries.

*** Although the United States accounts for more than half of the official contributions to developing countries, it is below the OECD average in proportion to national income.

Source: Vernon Duckworth-Barker, Breakthrough to Tomorrow, United Nations Centre for Economic and Social Information, United Nations, N.Y. (1970), p.65-6.

mined that the greater the amount of face-to-face interaction was among the UN member nation representatives and the greater the resulting opportunities for feedback, the more accurate the perception of reality was felt to be. An added benefit of face-to-face interaction was more flexibility in coalitions, which were based on similar interests and occurred on the neutral ground of the United Nations, thus encouraging international change non-violently. To many member nations, for whom the basic requisite for peace-keeping is not so much military security as the need for food, shelter and clothing, this channel for communication which may lead to processing international change is of utmost importance. This study indicates that greater awareness of the process of resolving international differences merits public attention and governmental concern.

If the actions of our government, as demonstrated by our foreign policy, do not yet show a commitment to a global view, what should educators be doing? The National Council for the Social Sciences has consistently, for the past twenty-five years, presented evidence, argument and suggestions for teaching for "world understanding."¹⁷ There has been some change in curriculum

¹⁷Becker and Mehlinger, op.cit.

Price, op.cit.

Roy A. Price, ed., Needed Research in Teaching of the Social Studies, NCSS Research Bulletin, no.1, 1963.

Richard E. Gross et al, The Problems Approach & the Social Studies, NCSS Curriculum series, no. 9 rev., 1960.

Julian C. Aldrich, ed., Social Studies for the Junior High School, NCSS Curriculum series, no.6, 1957.

Eunice Johns, ed., Social Studies in the Senior High School, NCSS Curriculum series, no. 7, 1953.

Edith West, ed., Improving the Teaching of World History, NCSS, 20th Yearbook, 1950.

syllabi in favor of world history and international relations courses, rather than a geographically-segmented South American or European or Western civilization approach. However, present efforts have fallen far short of implementing a global view. In 1946-47 world history accounted for 6.3% of pupil-semester registrations in social studies in grades 7 and 8, and for 13% in grade 9 in a sampling of secondary schools, according to a U.S. Office of Education bulletin.¹⁸ A recent survey by the Educational Testing Service revealed that the teaching of history and social studies in the high school has remained substantially the same for the last decade. Twenty-eight percent of students interviewed reported they had had no work in the history of africa south of the Sahara, and a substantial percentage indicated they had spent less than two weeks' time on Latin America, the Soviet Union, Asia, and North Africa.¹⁹ A survey by Educational Testing Service in 1964 found an increase in the frequency with which almost every social studies course was taught in grades 7 - 12, over the previous five year period.²⁰ It is customary to require four semesters in social studies only for those going on to college. While senior high school American history is a

¹⁸ Aldrich, op.cit., p.93 footnote.

¹⁹ A Proposal: To Meet the Crisis in World Affairs Education (The Student Forum on International Order and World Peace, New York, N.Y., 1969)

²⁰ Scarvia B. Anderson et al, Social Studies in Secondary Schools: A Survey of Courses and Practices (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J., Feb. 1964) p.3,7,12,16,20.

graduation requirement in practically all public schools, world geography and world history were required in 51% and 53%, respectively. While courses including these subjects were taught in 80-90% of the schools, the subject matter included the Far-east or Latin America in only half as many cases. Eighty-six percent of the schools offered world history at tenth grade. In the largest number of schools the emphasis in this course is on Europe from 500 A.D. to the present, with a large number of schools not giving even two weeks to Asia, Africa or Latin America. Dr. Harold Taylor summarizes the situation by stating that approximately 2% of curricular time is spent by high school students in studying cultures and societies outside the Western world, and not more than 10% of American college graduates have taken such courses.²¹ The present world affairs curriculum, whatever its course title, tends to be based on the traditional foreign policy approach. This approach includes acceptance of power politics in pursuit of national interest among equally aggressive nation-states, the inevitability of war as an extension of "national interest," military preparedness as the key to national security, and the United States as the national power responsible for maintaining peace. In Kenneth Boulding's words, peace and war are still regarded as "political meteorology," just as depressions used to be regarded as "economic meteorology."²²

²¹ Harold Taylor, The World and the American Teacher, (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., 1968) p.27.

²² Kenneth E. Boulding, "Education for the Spaceship Earth," Social Education, Vol. 32, No.7, November 1968, p.652.

It is the purpose of this thesis to describe what is meant by a global approach to social studies teaching, giving examples of what progress there has been in moving in that direction, and what is involved in bringing it about both in content and method. The world order or global approach would examine all the participants in the international system--nation-states, international organizations, political parties, corporations, political elites, private organizations, pressure groups and individuals--to determine their actual and potential roles in solving the global problems of war, human rights, poverty, pollution, and population growth. We can understand the dangers and limitations of parochialism at the local level; in a global society it can be fatal. In Chapter 2 a suggested framework for a global approach will be described.

Education has to do with keeping up with change, and the teacher should be the catalyst for helping attitudes change. To bring awareness of the problems which our global interdependence has forced upon all countries, the teacher can draw upon the newer trend of inter-disciplinary teaching. In Chapter 3 we shall see what some efforts to encourage a world order approach have made available through new curricula materials. Lack of research in applied social science, and a shortage of teachers who are trained to handle controversial issues in the classroom have limited any rapid application of a new approach. Teacher training has tended to encourage a role of supporting prevailing attitudes of the community in which a person teaches. But, here and there,

recognition of the global view of social studies has been implemented by individual teaching methods and use of resource materials, within the existing broad curricular objectives. The important difference is that a teacher who recognizes the need to present the subject in a global context may choose materials and methods in its support, as this study attempts to describe. Also needed is administrative support for innovation in the school and, in some cases, a rethinking of goals at the state level where those goals have been self-limiting through specified subject matter requirements.

CHAPTER II

WHAT IS A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE?

Where does the global view in the social studies begin?

It means more than simply adding studies in non-Western cultures or a unit on the United Nations, important though these subjects are. The spaceship Earth is a closed system which can be considered in its physical, cultural, and social aspects. A system implies interrelatedness. Thus, the disciplines of geography and anthropology bear primarily on the physical side; anthropology, the arts, and history are concerned with the cultural; and the other social sciences of economics, political science, sociology, and psychology provide the detail on the social aspects. Yet all three aspects are to some extent interrelated so that some unifying concepts are needed with which to look at the mass of detail and select that information which pertains to the inquiry.

There are certain characteristics of the global system in which we now exist: diversity--in language, religion, race and institutions; political uncentralization; economically depressed condition over the majority of the earth's surface; violence; increasing interdependence through technological improvements. To deal with the global scope of the problems which result from a closed system, there is a need to develop a sense of community.

By selecting certain human processes as unifying concepts, a new orientation can help to avoid the common ethnocentric view of the world.

In recent years there have been a number of efforts to move in this direction. One useful example grew out of a graduate summer session at San Jose State College in 1960 when the teaching of world history was organized around nine central themes as follows: the rise and decline of civilization; world governments and the development of democracy; the contributions of science and technology to civilizations; how man has made a living; the fine arts and education as they contribute to civilization; revolutionary movements; living religions; war and the struggle for peace; and the influence of geography on history. These common human characteristics could be related to a global framework, lessening the national emphasis of the common chronological approach.²³ A more recent study is being made at Diablo Valley, California to analyze how the problem of war and peace is dealt with in our schools.²⁴ Out of this project, still in progress, have come two major contributions to the treatment of curricula: (1) a broader definition of the war/peace field to include the subjects of world community, world development, ideology and culture, law; and the processes of conflict and change, authority,

²³ Byron G. Massialas and Frederick R. Smith, eds., Current Research in Social Studies, Bulletin of the School of Education, Vol. 40, No.2, March, 1964 (Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.) p.24.

²⁴ Diablo Valley Education Project, 50 Vashell Way, Orinda, California. See Appendix.

and responsibility; (2) the need to recognize the perspective or context in which these concepts are treated. Both of the studies cited illustrate ways to set a problem in a new global context. In the past such a need was hardly recognized. However, in a 1948 poll of 1425 adolescents, over one-half thought there would be a third world war before 1958, while 21% were satisfied with the progress of the United Nations and believed it would succeed in establishing world peace.²⁵ It is the new realities of a nuclear age that have led to our reexamining past assumptions and practices.

Returning to the characteristics of the global system mentioned above, we propose that each of these can be looked at with the least bias through the following underlying concepts: change (including violent and non-violent), conflict, authority or power, order, freedom, and responsibility. These are processes of behavior which are universal and thus can cross subject matter lines and cultural differences. They are based on the common ground of human experience and survival. In considering our first concept, change, does the material assume change is always good, always bad, a neutral process, cyclical, a controllable process? Does the material consider conflict inevitable, desirable, undesirable, subject to direction? This may be applied at the interpersonal, inter-group, or inter-nation level of conflict. Is the source theological, individual conscience, will of the majority, elitist group, crude force? What is implied about the need or

²⁵Eunice Johns, op.cit., p.13.

desirability of order? Is it a means to an end, or an end in itself? What value is placed on freedom? What limitations are there, and are they reasonable or unreasonable? Are any values universal? What does responsibility imply at home, abroad, in different cultures, in a global view?

We see from the questions raised one of the benefits gained by using the concept of a human process. First, in implementing these concepts there is an opportunity to make one's values explicit. There have been educators who have felt material should be presented in a neutral way, letting the information speak for itself. However, social studies in its very nature deals with differing values which cannot safely be ignored. The knowledgeable teacher tries to make evident what attitudes and value systems underlie the material chosen, providing a range of such materials. In other words he provides a context which aids the student in recognizing the basis for values held. If he sees his function as providing multiple alternatives, he will reduce the danger of polarization which can only interfere with the learning process. Our schools usually label as "propaganda" any material based on non-democratic values contradicting our way of life. While the teacher must recognize, and provide a balance in, the source of classroom materials, he would jeopardize the inquiry method by labelling at an early stage.

Our educational system is charged with the task of teaching the values of our democratic society and of perpetuating these values. Among the most important of these would be concern for

truth, respect for evidence, and adherence to the scientific method.²⁶ But if our society fails to present these values in a larger framework, our children will not be prepared to deal with differing value systems. It is unrealistic, in the global view, for a democratic society to assume its values are the only ones which are valid for all people. A world order does not rest upon any one system of values but it does imply two axioms: the survival of the human race, and improving the lot of mankind--its peoples as distinct from nations.

A second benefit of the human concepts suggested above comes through their adaptability to the problem-solving or inquiry approach. In implementing a concept, there must be a method of encouraging the student to sense the interrelatedness of the differing views he will encounter. By following the inquiry approach a way is provided to sample and compare different ways in which our proposed concepts have been treated by different societies. There is bound to be emphasis on the American view of the world simply because this is what is familiar to us. The need is for some points of reference that avoid national myopia and help us deal with controversial subjects with minimum bias. We shall discuss in Chapter 4 the way in which the inquiry method has taken hold in the new social studies. Fortunately, a trend in this direction has produced new materials which were badly needed in order to attain a global orientation in the classroom. By themselves, however, they may not accomplish that purpose, but simply

²⁶Roy A. Price, Needed Research in Teaching of Social Studies, op.cit., p.42.

add some international content to the curriculum.

Third, the proposed concepts can be utilized by the interested teacher in a variety of ways and with great flexibility. The teacher will make the difference. He will be less limited by his materials. He can include this orientation in parts of units and with various subjects, as different as science or everyday economics. Although there is still a great need for more specific text material related to international relations at both elementary and secondary school level, present teaching could be improved simply on the basis of the conceptual presentation, as, for example, the kind of human related orientation found in the Glen Falls experiment.²⁷ A major drawback is found in the lack of preparation of the teacher for the global view in teacher education programs. On the other hand, there is a readiness among many schools to experiment with innovative teaching methods, including team teaching, improved audio-visual aids, flexible groupings--all of which offer a pooling of resources aimed at exciting interest and keeping the curricula up to date. Factual input through a superior film or a closed-circuit TV presentation could then be followed by discussion, simulations, or individual projects, where the proposed basic concepts are an aid to open-ended inquiry or a "what if" procedure. The actual opportunity of the teacher to be innovative thus must have the support of administration as well.

²⁷ Harold M. Long and Robert N. King, Improving the Teaching of World Affairs: The Glen Falls Story, NCSS Bulletin no. 35 (Washington, D.C., 1964) p.46.

Although a few basic concepts are an aid to providing a global viewpoint, it is possible to identify a number of more specific goals in the way the curricula is presented. The accompanying table gives these in brief.

TABLE II

TWO CONTEXTS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

<u>Traditional Approach</u>	<u>Global Approach</u>
1. Loyal citizen; ethnocentrism	1. Detached observer (eliminate "we")
2. Nation a single entity; uniformity of American culture	2. Many voices for the nation (government agencies, international business & professional groups, economic or ethnic groups)
3. U.S. foreign policy pre-occupation (big nation syndrome)	3. Trans-national view (the human equation)
4. Focus on institution	4. Focus on problem
5. Textbook oriented	5. Current events; multi-national materials
6. Chronological approach	6. Inquiry method (comparative, case study or problem approach)

Traditionally, national history and policy are presented as "we fought" or "we won." A change of perspective to a third party, or detached observer, view would help avoid emotional bias. It is customary to think of our "nation" as a single entity, overlooking much of the time the great diversity of cultures within our own borders--such differences as rural or urban, black or white, worker or owner. Our nation increasingly has many voices speaking

for it--not merely the Chief Executive but also international business, individual governmental agencies (e.g. Peace Corps, Atomic Energy Commission, U.S. Information Agency, the different branches of the military, and trans-national professional, religious, scientific, educational and other non-governmental organizations. Each organization projects abroad a differing facet of our image. Each has goals which may or may not be compatible with either United States or global objectives. Thus, the "United States" goal at any time can only partially reflect its component groups. The emphasis on the superiority of United States foreign policy which has accompanied our development as a world power, especially since World War II, unfortunately causes our government to avoid international institutions for solving problems. The cry that "we cannot be the world's policeman" is increasing recognition of the implications of that role. As the emphasis shifts to recognizing the trans-national character of the problems that concern us, the possibility increases that our government will give increased support to international institutions, recognizing that what best serves mankind, best serves our country.

To the extent that a textbook focuses on any given political institution as a segment of material to be learned, whether it is a particular government, an agency of government such as the Agency for International Development (AID) or the Department of Defense, or international institutions such as the United Nations and NATO, there may be a lack of connectedness of that institution

with others. It is the problem of not seeing the forest for the trees. In addition, the effect of institutions depends on the political realities. The "real" leaders may not be the "institutional" ones.²⁸ If more focus is on the problem (e.g. nuclear war, pollution, urbanization, minority group relations, etc.), the larger context itself suggests the broader approach in seeking solutions, without slighting the importance of a working knowledge of particular institutions. Many American problems would be seen to be world problems. Increasingly, the problem approach appears to be favored, and would support the objectives of this paper. The textbook bias itself is sometimes recognized by the teacher but is particularly difficult for any locality or country to completely eliminate. There is a tendency to stereotype other cultures, to neglect non-Western cultures because of time limitations, or to present a chauvinistic view of American accomplishments. A pertinent effort is now being carried out by the International Textbook Project in which translations from the textbooks of thirty-four other countries will be used as a supplementary text for high school American History.²⁹ The United Nations World History is another example of an effort to draw on the differing perspectives of historians all over the world in a team approach

²⁸Price, New Viewpoints, p.25, 83.

²⁹Howard D. Mehlinger, "Enlarging the International Component of the High School Social Studies Curriculum," Social Education, Vol. 32, No.7, November 1968, p.683.

to history.³⁰

The next item on Table II has received a good deal of attention in the curriculum changes sought under the new social studies. The interest-stimulating limitations of the chronological approach are recognized. If studied one region at a time, there is little incentive, from the material, to broaden the student's perspective. A special effort must be made to relate that region to a global setting. By contrast, the comparative approach which follows from case studies can lead to a recognition of differing values and reexamination of previous assumptions from a more nearly neutral viewpoint. It must relate information to both the domestic and the global scene. The orientation, in any case, should be both forward-looking and backward-looking. We can hope the student will begin to learn how to live with change in a constructive way and be able to tolerate ambiguity.

The outcome of the global approach suggested in Table II would be to provide evidence of the interrelated needs of both our society and others. It could show where overlapping loyalties can be brought to bear in resolving conflict and promoting cooperation. The global approach could lead to a reexamination of our concepts of authority, order, and freedom.

³⁰Price, New Viewpoints, op.cit., p.31.

CHAPTER III

TOOLS OF CHANGE: CURRICULA AND TEACHER

A. SCHOOL-INITIATED INNOVATION

This paper has reviewed some criteria by which teaching can be directed toward a global viewpoint. It will now consider some tools for working toward that goal. The schools attempt to carry out their educational function by developing basic understandings, developing thinking skills, and, to a greater or lesser extent, changing attitudes. The process of instruction involves three elements: the curriculum materials, the teacher, and the student.

The ideal curriculum for developing a world view would involve the whole curriculum--the kind of involvement that occurred in the Glen Falls experiment, starting in 1957.³¹ This was not initiated as simply a curriculum revision or an adoption of new units. It was a reorientation in which the major responsibility for what was taught shifted from the administration to the classroom teacher. Understanding and appreciation of the common humanity of all men was no longer limited to the social studies department. Art, English, Industrial Arts, Mathematics, Science also extended their thinking to the international arena. For example, in Mathematics the students compared their tenth grade examinations with those

³¹Long and King, op.cit., p.23-25, 27.

of students in the Soviet Union; in Industrial Arts the mechanical differences between United States and foreign automobiles, or the world sources of lumber were included; in English there were debates on world affairs and increased reading of literature other than American and European. The change of outlook by the teacher was reflected in the variety of activities introduced in each class. Continuing teacher workshops were conducted by specialists to assist in the international orientation, and wide use of audio-visual materials and foreign visitors contributed to the program. The new orientation resulted in both new methods and materials, but it preceded changes in either, and was primarily due to the encouragement of teacher creativity.

The United Nations International School is another kind of model. Aside from the obviously international make-up of the student body, who come from some eighty nations, what can we learn about curriculum or teaching methods that could be adapted elsewhere? The teachers, often from opposite backgrounds, found that the only basis for working together was their willingness to learn from each other. This did not mean abandoning loyalties; but individualism, controversy, and testing of ideas were respected. The declared aims of the U.N.I.S were taken from the United Nations Charter preamble: to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, reaffirm the dignity and equality of human beings, promote social progress, and practice tolerance. The problem of differing historical perspectives by different countries is met by striking a balance between the national and international view. Textbooks are used very little. Materials and recommended readings are

obtained from the U.S. Association for UNICEF and the Library of Children's Cultures in New York City. A collection of UN documents, extracted for school use for senior high school level, is in preparation; also a collation of opposed interpretations of history from UNESCO titled "Scientific and Cultural History of Mankind." Social studies is required at every level, geography emphasized at early grades, world history at grades six to eight.³² A contemporary problems approach in high school provides for a balancing of national interpretations within a global view. The United Nations school is one of a number of international schools which is participating in a six year experiment involving the International Schools Examination Syndicate. By developing an international syllabus of subjects for the curriculum of the last two years of secondary school, the ten nations involved in this effort are breaking ground for a truly international approach to education.³³

The United World College of the Atlantic at Glamorgan, South Wales is an example of a planned effort by educators to achieve international education through attracting an international student body and faculty.³⁴ It is of particular interest here because it is unique in aiming at the 16 - 18 year age group, at the pre-university level. Its 266 students come from 36 countries. The school, formed in 1962, is devoted to making education

³²Desmond Cole, "The UN International School: An Approach to Social Studies," Social Education, Vol. 33, No. 1, Jan.1969,p.33-4.

³³Taylor, op.cit., p.175-8.

³⁴United World College of the Atlantic, 1969 brochure, The Commission for the United World Colleges, Inc., 170 E.64th St., New York 10021.

a force that unites, not divides, countries. It attempts to resolve differing university requirements in different countries by working out flexible programming for particular students within the basic British and American requirements. The decision to work with the 16 - 18 age group was based on several ideas: a resident community was desired, rather than daytime classes only; the students are old enough to reflect national and racial prejudices and understand international tensions, but still flexible enough to accommodate their ideas; they are not yet specializing in their studies; community service should be a regular part of their activities; emphasis on individual project work is combined with nationally mixed classes in all subjects, except the literature and language of the student's own country. The majority of pupils come on scholarships publicized through local world affairs groups in many countries to ensure a broad representation of economic and social background and also ensure high academic qualifications. Atlantic College is intended to be the first of several such schools, with plans for establishing a joint Canadian-American College on the Pacific Coast and also one in Germany.

Another approach to emphasizing the global view has been carried out through the Associated Schools Project of the National Commission of UNESCO.³⁵ In 1966 there were over 500 primary and secondary schools and teacher training institutions participating in 54 countries.³⁶ This is more than double the number in 1957

³⁵ UNESCO, Education for International Understanding, (Paris, 1959) p.7.

³⁶ United Nations, Yearbook, 1966 (Office of Public Information, New York, 1968) p.991.

when teacher training institutions were first included in the project.³⁷ The aims of "international understanding" are promoted in the classroom through knowledge of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and its aspirations, the Constitution of UNESCO, the activities of the United Nations in all subject fields (both historical and problem approaches), foreign visitors, school affiliations, correspondence, traveling exhibits from UNESCO and other organizations. An attempt is made to evaluate the effectiveness of the UNESCO program by comparing experimental and control groups by tests of knowledge, attitude scales, and "projective" techniques.³⁸ Successful ideas are exchanged by written materials and occasional conferences. Fellowships have enabled some teachers to visit other cooperating schools. Although the importance of increasing the international component of curriculum is emphasized, the over-all influence of such an effort as the Associated Schools Project may well be the impact on the attitude of the teacher toward international understandings.

A World Order Models Project, which is still in process, is being carried out by the World Law Fund.³⁹ It will consist of a set of descriptions of what the international system could be like

³⁷ UNESCO, op.cit., p.104.

³⁸ Ibid., p.96-101

³⁹ World Law Fund Progress Report, Vol. 2, No. 1, Winter 1970, 11 W. 42nd Street, New York, N.Y. 10036. A publication date of 1972 is projected.

in 1990 as seen by teams of researchers from eight regions of the world. After adaptation to use in the classroom during 1971-72, it will be printed in a dozen or more languages and will provide a curriculum tool for teachers throughout the world dealing with the problems that the individual, organizations, and nations will be facing in seeking war prevention, economic welfare and social justice. It is an exciting approach since it is the first genuinely international attempt at a global orientation. Other efforts have been bound by a single culture or a limited area.

An entire school system is involved in evaluating how the matter of war and peace should be taught in the Diablo Valley Education Project, referred to previously. Out of this project are expected a number of teaching materials and innovative ideas. Its concern is a K through 12 approach to social studies, with discovery method and simulations getting strong support. At this writing, five units are in a prepublication stage.⁴⁰ We shall illustrate the DVEP work with one of these, "On Conflict," which consists of several sub-units suitable for supplementing a variety of courses, or for use in a single eight-week sequence.⁴¹ The goal

⁴⁰"Dissent and American Society; "International Conflict: World War I, the Cuban Missile Crisis, and a simulation 'Crisis'; "On Conflict"; The Habit of Violence"; "Problems of Misperception by Decision Makers."

⁴¹Olin Kirkland, On Conflict: a curriculum unit (mimeo), pre-publication copy, 1970. Also Workshop Report, Third Meeting of War/Peace Curriculum Implementation Committee, May 22, 1970. (Diablo Valley Education Project, 50 Vashell Way, Orinda, California 94563)

of this curriculum is to get students to consider six major ways that conflict can be solved on personal, inter-group, and international levels, namely, authority, compromise, confrontation, scapegoating, advocate system, and consensus. For example, the first sub-unit is a "dilemma" simulation in which the psychology of hostile or cooperative choice is explored; perception, aggression and strategy are involved. Other sub-units use current social science data upon which problems of conflict are posed, or apply the inquiry method to a proposed world of year 2000 A.D. As presently written it would be largely at a college level, but some of it is adaptable to high school. Further details are described in Chapter 4, in which teaching methods are discussed.

Two recent experiments in the Portland (Oregon) public schools have sought an international approach which would be more extensive than what occurs in the usual classroom. During 1969-70 Mrs. Lynda Falkenstein, social studies teacher at Lincoln High School, with the support of the Portland United Nations Association, directed a series of three workshops entitled "Decision-Making in International Relations" for a selected group of 120 students, 8 - 12 grade.⁴² First, was the simulation game, Dangerous Parallel (Foreign Policy Association), which deals with decisions and consequences involved in a world crisis (based on Korean War). Second, was a series of short role plays, each dealing with a crisis based on conflicting values of groups or

⁴²Schools participating were Capitol Hill and Bridlemile grade schools, and John Adams, Lincoln, and Wilson High Schools. Approximately fifty were eighth graders.

nations, with two protagonists and a mediator. These were followed by a film, "Cuban Missile Crisis," which portrayed the sequence of events in both the United States and Russia and their inter-reactions. The third event was an exploration of "Man and the State" using the arts of mime, film (The Hand), song, and historical readings to create a multi-media approach to understanding human behavior. Each workshop brought the students together at a central location at one month intervals for approximately four hours of participation and evaluation. The mind-stretching quality of these exercises was evident in the student response during debriefing discussion. The students felt the role play aspects of the games were useful in developing their confidence to be confronted with new and complex material, because the ideas expressed by students were based on merit and not on the grade or rank of the student. Their feeling that the simulations should last longer served to emphasize the time limitation factor present in any international crisis. The simulations also were informative in showing how different outcomes occurred with different groups from the same basic data. The students were definitely a group selected for ability and interest, but it is worth noting that the varied grade level of participants was of no noticeable drawback to their ability to carry out the exercises. Initial briefings by the instructor, and student discussion at the end of each workshop, were an essential part. There was no other effort at measuring the workshops' success except as referred to in class later in the year. Another aim of the experience was to involve adults equally with the students,

providing the opportunity for a joint and vivid experience in the nature of international decision making.

During 1967-68, Project LAWS was funded by the Law and World Society to examine the causes of war and peace and the prospects for world economic development. A group of student volunteers at John Marshall High School met after school with their teachers for a planned program extending over three months. This consisted of a series of four films, outside speakers, reading and discussion. Different opinions and views were critically confronted to develop an ability to see the strengths and weaknesses of the arguments for each position on war and peace.

The foregoing Portland experiences in curriculum innovation are intended as added suggestions of the variety of efforts possible in introducing students to the global responsibilities which they will be encountering. These two projects also demonstrate the limitations of such innovations if they do not prepare the way for applying the insights obtained to a wider segment of the students. Either a lack of evaluation or follow-up by teachers and administrators results in an interesting project being isolated from application to social studies classes on a broader scale.

B. CURRICULAR MATERIALS

In recent years there has been an increasing flow of new social studies curriculum materials--units, case studies, simulation games--which replace or supplement the older materials. Many are still so new as to have been used in relatively few schools and only where innovation is actively encouraged. These materials

provide the most flexible means of getting some global orientation in the average classroom, although an imaginative teacher would not be limited to the unit approach nor to the social studies class. There are common elements in the new materials--based on discussion they encourage scientific inquiry and open-ended conclusions. But every inquiry rests on certain assumptions which are value judgments. It requires considerable skill on the part of the teacher, as will be discussed in Chapter 4, to help the student appraise the causes and effects of the value systems which his inquiry in the international arena will involve.

The new social studies materials may be grouped as to their approach: discipline-centered, area-oriented studies, comparative, and integrated.⁴³ Examples of the first group would be the following: The Committee on the Study of History project under Richard H. Brown, which has resulted in publishing "New Dimensions in American History" units at the 11th grade level (Addison-Wesley), is scheduled to have thirteen titles by 1970. (An earlier series by the same title was published in 1965 by D. C. Heath.) Of these, four deal with war or conflict. Built around specific problems, they try to involve the student in working from a broad basis of evidence to form his own conclusions.⁴⁴ As an example, "The Monroe Doctrine" presents a number of different points of view with original sources, demonstrating the open-ended nature of

⁴³Intercom, op.cit., p.40-60.

⁴⁴Norris M. Sanders and Marlin L. Tanck, "A Critical Appraisal of Twenty-six National Social Studies Projects," Social Education, Vol. 34, No.4, April 1970, p.416.

historical decisions. Although it reflects the balance of power concept which continues to dominate U.S. foreign policy, it begins to present at the high school level the interrelatedness of American policy with that of the non-Western hemisphere. The temptation to think of "we" and "they" begins to be redirected toward the global "us." The teacher's ability to present the world context and the universal human situation would still determine the degree of future orientation that occurs. Most of the material assumes considerable ability in the inquiry method.

The Curriculum Center at Indiana University under Engle and Mehlinger has developed political science courses for the 9th and 11-12 grades.⁴⁵ The 9th grade course studies political behavior rather than describing government. The courses call for many activities to motivate the student, including cartoons, case studies, attitude scales, statistics, and creating their own story endings. Emphasis is given to distinctions between value description and value judgment. Attitude shifts are measured by the students using inventories before and after some of the studies.

The High School Geography project of the National Council for Geographic Education, based at Boulder, Colorado contains six units which bring in history, anthropology, political science and economics.⁴⁶ Included are concepts of territory, hierarchy, rivalry, presented in a variety of ways through audio-visual materials

⁴⁵Ibid., p.428.

⁴⁶Ibid., p.425.

(slides, transparencies, maps, games) and some case studies. Although envisioned as a geography course, specific units or lessons could be incorporated in other social studies courses. An attempt has been made to match behavioral objectives with evaluation.

The United States Office of Education suggested a geographical approach to international relations in 1960. The present area-oriented approach includes Michaelis' World Studies Inquiry Series Project at Berkeley for junior and senior high school. The three paperback booklets on Africa, Asia and Latin America present emotional vignettes, sometimes partisan, which are particularly successful with slower learners since they are written at the fifth grade level.⁴⁷ The Carnegie-Mellon University, under Barry K. Beyer, has developed "Project Africa" for grades 7 - 12.⁴⁸ Described as multi-disciplinary, it is accompanied by readings of varied difficulty and audio-visual materials which help overcome the problem of poor readers. The University of Texas Curriculum Project on Latin America is for elementary and secondary schools; and Project CUE of the New York State Education Department integrates the arts and other media materials into the curriculum.⁴⁹

The Comparative approach is exemplified by the Carnegie-Mellon

⁴⁷Sanders and Tanck, op.cit., p.436.

⁴⁸Ibid., p.436.

⁴⁹Intercom, op.cit., p.49-51, 54.

project (Holt Social Studies Curriculum) under Edwin Fenton for grades 10 - 12.⁵⁰ Readings based on economics, political systems, history, and behavioral sciences compare differences and similarities among two or more countries. They use a conceptual approach, and recognize that foreign affairs cannot be separated from domestic affairs. Audio-visual materials are an integral part of the course. Teacher-directed discussion is the basic strategy. Though most materials require academically able students, one of the courses is particularly geared to the slow learner.⁵¹

The Integrated approach places its emphasis on concepts drawn from all the social studies disciplines, and several programs extend from K - 12 grade. Roy A. Price at the Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse selects such concepts as sovereignty, conflict, loyalty, and historical method to draw together information from the various disciplines.⁵² The Social Science Curriculum Study Center at University of Illinois bases its courses for junior and senior high school on such concepts as economic constraint, political power, culture, and socialization.⁵³ The Harvard Social Studies Project (American Education Publications) has some twenty titles completed in its series which cover a range of public issues, using underlying concepts and a case study approach.⁵⁴

⁵⁰Sanders and Tanck, op.cit., p.397.

⁵¹Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.96.

⁵²Intercom, op.cit., p.60.

⁵³Ibid., p.59.

⁵⁴Sanders and Tanck, op.cit., p.439.

An example is the treatment of twentieth century Russia from the view of revolution and the individual's role or responsibility. At least six titles directly concern the international field. The latest title is "The Limits of War: National Policy and World Conscience." Combining historical development (e.g. Nuremberg Trials, bombing of Hiroshima) and analogy case studies, the unit helps students grapple with questions about the limits of violence. No films are included as an integral part of the Harvard Project materials, and they are aimed at the average student.

Most of the project materials summarized here, including those which claim to be disciplinary, would be adaptable in part or in whole for a teacher wishing to present the global orientation urged in this paper. The integrated approach illustrates the method of providing unifying ideas which have global application, while permitting selection among the problems and supporting data studied according to an inquiry approach. The materials of any of the new approaches often use a case study or comparative format and usually lean heavily on student directed investigation and current materials. This means that these "first fruits" of the new social studies curriculum are primarily geared for the more able student. As we have pointed out, however, the student of average or below ability should be challenged by some materials now available, and it is to be hoped that more materials will be rewritten as their use indicates the need. In general, there has been a tendency to devote more attention to a study of man's past

history than to an examination of man's alternate futures.⁵⁵

However, all of these new curricula depend in the end on the teacher. It is in the teacher training process that we find the real bottleneck now. We shall take a look at suggested changes here after considering one other aspect of curricula--simulation.

Simulation games are one of the newer curriculum tools for stimulating student interest and imparting a sense of the basis of decision making. They are an approach to physical-science-like study of human action so that concepts can be experimented with in a semi-laboratory situation. By tying in results with a computer, the number of decisions could even be greatly increased. The Foreign Policy Association has been in the forefront of simulations development, as well as other world affairs materials, and has put out a useful bibliography on the subject.⁵⁶ Such simulations have an appeal in the international field because of the complexity and remoteness of the subject matter to the average student. There have been mixed reactions from teachers and students although most have agreed on its interest-getting value, particularly for the less-motivated student. Teachers often object that the extended time the game takes could be better spent in other ways. Often it is the most able student who objects to the game because the game rules do not permit the innovations

⁵⁵James M. Becker, "An Examination of Objectives, Needs and Priorities in International Education in U.S. Secondary and Elementary Schools" (mimeo) (Foreign Policy Association, New York, July 1969) p.12.

⁵⁶New Dimensions, No. 1, 1968, "Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom" (Foreign Policy Association, New York)

he thinks are needed to produce change. In short, many games in current use present the status quo and limit experimentation with the future. A criticism of some games is that the construction of the game makes it impossible for the last player to lose; another criticism is that the game requires no real cost in going to war.⁵⁷ Therefore, the following cautions should be recognized if simulations are used: (1) a limited amount of factual material can be presented as a basis for the game, thus requiring recognition that conclusions can be only partially correct; (2) choice of alternatives in the game is limited and thus its limited application should be made explicit; (3) the research on simulations supports only its success in motivation, not in acquiring more factual or conceptual knowledge or thinking critically, as may be the intent;⁵⁸ (4) the simplistic game format can conceivably lead to misconceptions rather than accurate information; for example, the use of power can become an end in itself without also becoming aware of the underlying values posed; (5) the debriefing by the teacher is highly important since discussion of the assumptions, values, and concepts brought out in the game do contribute to the student's awareness of a wider context (whether political, economic, racial).

The motivational aim of simulations can also be provided

⁵⁷ Alice J. Kaplan and Martin S. Gordon, "A Critique of 'War or Peace: a Simulation Game,'" Social Education, Vol. 31, No. 5, May 1967, p.384.

⁵⁸ Intercom, op.cit., p.66.

through role-playing and creative drama which can be accomplished in shorter, less-complicated presentations. Such ideas as reenacting some of the Nuremberg Trials, the Shimoda Case (damage suit by Hiroshima survivors), a session of the UN General Assembly or some other world peacekeeping model, can be a useful teaching tool from the standpoint of building a global perspective.⁵⁹

Outside of the social studies class, drama could bring folk plays of other countries to the student, and language and the arts have always enhanced our knowledge of other cultures. There is a need, also, for more access to foreign points of view through literature published abroad. Perhaps this could be implemented by cooperative publishing ventures with firms in other countries. A free flow of educational and scientific materials would require avoiding the blocking of imported materials on ideological grounds (e.g. from Communist sources) or because of copyright restrictions on books manufactured abroad. The United States became a participant in the Universal Copyright Convention in 1955 but there still appears to be uncertainty over its protection for foreign publications because of the varying laws of our states and their status vis a vis federal law.

Audio-visual media still tend to be used as supplementary to, rather than an integral part of, social studies, with a few exceptions such as the Fenton project or programmed learning. Audio

⁵⁹ Several of these materials are available from the World Law Fund. See Appendix.

visual materials are based on the desire to involve the student in the learning experience. There is some evidence that appealing to several senses can reenforce learning.⁶⁰ Pictures projected in various ways have been shown to promote vocabulary growth and motivation.⁶¹ The nature of international relations especially demands a variety of media. Much needs to be done to improve the ready availability of films and filmstrips which can condense pertinent information for a course. Closed circuit television is only beginning to find its way into most school systems. Commercial programs and news features are a supplement but not a substitute for in-class viewing. Of schools using programmed learning materials in 1963, only 3% were using them in social studies as compared with 61% in Mathematics.⁶² This figure suggests that there is a lack of suitable programmed materials in social studies, or that the usefulness of such materials is more difficult to assess, or both. Presumably with a trend toward more programming, there are untapped opportunities for including international relations subject matter in this method of instruction.

Varied media are especially needed with inner-city students to keep their interest, since they lack certain first-hand exper-

⁶⁰Celeste Woodley, "Media and the New Social Studies," Social Education, Vol. 34, No. 4, April 1970, p.455.

⁶¹Ebel, op.cit., p.1238.

⁶²Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.84.

iences due to their socio-economic background.⁶³ The MATCH (Materials and Activities for Teachers and Children) project which emphasizes non-verbal learning (models, artifacts, clay) is a new application of an older approach.⁶⁴ These varied ways of introducing the audio-visual dimension are further curriculum tools which need only the application of an awareness of a global viewpoint to suggest means of adapting them.

C. TEACHER EDUCATION

The teacher who has traveled abroad or studied in an area studies program is likely to be aware of the need for a global approach to social studies. Such teachers, however, are still relatively few. As far as receiving course preparation in non-Western cultures or world affairs is concerned, not more than 3 - 5% of all social studies teachers could qualify, according to best estimates currently available.⁶⁵ In preparing a 1966 study of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), Dr. Harold Taylor found in his visits to forty-five campuses that the students most concerned with world issues and social change seldom were involved in teacher education, and conversely.⁶⁶

⁶³Woodley, op.cit., p.452.

⁶⁴Sanders and Tanck, op.cit., p.445. Developed by Children's Museum of Boston.

⁶⁵Taylor, op.cit., p.26.

⁶⁶Harold Taylor, ed., Conference on World Education, (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., 1966) p.8.

Such programs as VISTA, the National Teaching Corps and Head Start have drawn many creative teachers to domestic needs, rather than the comparable Peace Corps opportunity for teachers abroad. (Approximately fifty percent of Peace Corps trainees are in educational programs.)⁶⁷ The domestic "peace corps" programs came late in the 1960s in response to the eagerness of college students for active community service beyond the limitations of classroom teaching. More recently these new programs have provided a form of international education for participants and leaders alike. Members of the Volunteers to America project and foreign students studying in the United States have shared their skills in the programs of VISTA and the National Teacher Corps. We also discuss later in this paper the potential for world affairs education that the Peace Corps returnees bring to our college programs after two years of involvement in a foreign culture. The International Education Act passed in 1966, although never funded, formally stated a new concept that asserts that to be educated in America it is necessary to be educated as a citizen of the international community.⁶⁸

Efforts to remove the deficiency in international education of teachers has included sending abroad, in recent years, on the

⁶⁷Inventory of Federal Programs Involving Educational Activities concerned with Improving International Understanding and Cooperation, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Institute of International Studies (G.P.O., Washington, D.C., June 1969) p.373.

⁶⁸Taylor, Conference on World Education, op.cit., p.7.

average 700 teachers for exchange of teaching posts and language and area studies instruction under the Fulbright-Hays Act of 1961.⁶⁹ Thirty-five countries were involved in elementary and

TABLE III

FULBRIGHT-HAYS PROGRAM*

	<u>FY 1966</u>	<u>FY 1967</u>	<u>FY 1968</u>
No. of individual grants of U.S. nationals	178	209	174
No. of group projects supported	28	56	35
Total no. of U.S. participants in group projects	430	769	676
No. of grants to foreign nationals	15	32	16
Amount of funding - total	\$2,000,000	\$2,996,000	\$2,705,762

* See Footnote 67, p.158-9.

secondary teacher exchange in 1967-68.⁷⁰ Under this program administered by the Institute of International Studies of the U.S. Office of Education, 400 teachers also come to the United States for instruction in American education. For three to six weeks of their six month visit they are assigned to a local school system to observe it in all its aspects. More than 300 cities and

⁶⁹Taylor, World and American Teacher, op.cit., p.279.

⁷⁰Becker and Mehlinger, op.cit., p.263. Applicants for an exchange should write before November 1 to Teacher Exchange and Training Branch, Bureau of Elementary & Secondary Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.

towns across the United States thus had an opportunity for American children and adults to have some association with these foreign educators during 1969.⁷¹ The association is even closer when the grantee also lives with an American family.

Looking at the higher education picture, an inventory of international programs prepared at the East-West Center in Honolulu in 1965 reports that 199 colleges and universities sent faculty abroad, 88 institutions had overseas branches, 100 had programs for exchanging materials with foreign educators.⁷² Such activities received encouragement after the enactment of the National Defense Education Act of 1963 made possible the establishment of area studies, language centers, and international relations programs in universities around the United States. During the 1970 fiscal year a thirty percent reduction in funding occurred due to federal belt-tightening. The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) has provided funds for institutes in five areas of social studies since 1964 (history, geography, civics, and economics). Beginning in 1968 there were also to be institutes in international affairs for elementary and secondary teachers.⁷³

⁷¹International Educational Development Program, U.S. Department of HEW, Office of Education, Institute of International Studies (G.P.O., Washington, D.C., 1969) p.9.

⁷²Taylor, World and American Teacher, op.cit., p.9.

⁷³Becker and Mehlinger, op.cit., p.261-2.

The formation of the Institute of International Studies in the Office of Education in March, 1968, provided the needed center for communicating and implementing the international dimension of education to an ever widening audience in the United States.

Through the Agency for International Development (AID) more than seventy universities have engaged in technical cooperation assistance in over forty countries since the 1950s, which means professors may be loaned to foreign universities for limited periods for seminars or other training.⁷⁴ (Table 4) The Volunteers to America program, mentioned earlier, has a program for bringing teachers to American school systems from abroad.⁷⁵ The Cultural Exchange Program, a reverse Peace Corps idea, has begun an experimental program which brought two hundred foreign students to the United States to work with American students in community education projects.⁷⁶

The School Partnership Program, started in 1965 and implemented through the Peace Corps, is a means of involving an entire class or school in cultural understanding. Under this program, schools in the United States raise funds for the purpose of building schools in another country. The funds are matched abroad by contributions of land and labor amounting to about 25% of the total cost of the school. Between June 1964 and September 1968, 1,068 contributors (schools or school districts) contributed

⁷⁴Ibid., p.30.

⁷⁵Ibid., p.37.

⁷⁶Taylor, Conference on World Education, op.cit., p.9.

TABLE IV
AID FINANCED UNIVERSITY CONTRACTS*

	June 30, 1966			June 30, 1967			March 31, 1968		
	No. of Countries	No. of Univ.	Amt. (millions)	No. of Countries	No. of Univ.	Amt. (millions)	No. of Countries	No. of Univ.	Amt. (millions)
Latin America	17	39		16	39		17	33	
Near East	6	25		7	18		6	22	
Africa	13	33		13	33		13	33	
Far East	4	7		2	6		3	8	
Vietnam	-	-		1	3		1	4	
Total	40	104	\$175.8	39	99	\$166.5	40	100	\$205.1

* Educational projects under the Technical Assistance Program (Foreign Assistance Act of 1961)

Sources: Inventory of Federal Programs involving Educational Activities concerned with Improving International Understanding and Cooperation, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Institute of International Studies (G.P.O., Washington, D.C., June 1969), p.16-18.

a total of \$785,496. Administrative expense for the Peace Corps has added approximately another \$150,000 per year. Seven hundred forty seven (747) projects in forty-one countries have been assisted.⁷⁷ The possibilities for curriculum development in the participating schools can be seen and can lead to further activities bringing the concept of the global village closer to home.

An important potential source for training of teachers abroad could be developed through the Overseas Schools which are operated under the U.S. State Department and enroll 28,000 American children in 132 schools in 80 countries. Although these schools now tend to have a predominantly American flavor, they employ many foreign teachers and often offer special language and area studies programs.⁷⁸ Here is a ready-made opportunity for teacher training if contact with the communities where the schools are located is increased and incorporated into the teaching program.

All United States government international education activities, including the Fulbright-Hays Act under HEW, AID, National Science Foundation, and the Peace Corps, are coordinated by the Department of State under the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs. In addition to carrying out exchange programs directly with some 135 countries, it also assists non-governmental organizations and institutions in their international programs, some of which are carried out under contract. In 1967 there were 24 of

⁷⁷Inventory of Federal Programs, U.S. Department of HEW, op.cit., p.382-3.

⁷⁸Taylor, World and American Teacher, op.cit., p.166-7.

programs receiving \$3 million.⁷⁹ The number of non-governmental

TABLE V

U.S. CITIZENS DOING STUDY/RESEARCH ABROAD
BY FEDERAL AGENCY*

<u>Agency</u>	<u>FY 1966</u>	<u>FY 1968</u>
Department of Defense (does not include dependent schools)	137	128
Health, Education and Welfare (Office of Education - Fulbright Program)	805 (349)	1,218 (851)
National Science Foundation	1,466	1,045
Department of State (exchange of persons programs only)	3,013	2,089 (est.)

*Inventory of Federal Programs, U.S. Department of HEW,
op.cit., p.xii-xiii.

organizations assisting foreign study and travel is growing, including the Experiment for International Living, the World University Service, Operation Crossroads Africa, Asia Society, and the Foreign Study League (an agency of the Transamerica Corporation), and the American Heritage Association.⁸⁰

UNESCO has organized exchange of teachers, students and leaders of educational movements through its International Exchange Service. In 1966 it financed 1,100 fellowships and travel grants, wholly or in part.⁸¹

⁷⁹Inventory of Federal Programs, U.S. Department of HEW,
op.cit., p.410.

⁸⁰The Study Abroad Library of Portland State University, Dept. of International Education, has a comprehensive file of foreign study opportunities.

⁸¹United Nations, Yearbook, op.cit., p.993.

On a smaller scale, since 1962 the University of Akron has held a month's summer session abroad for teachers in both elementary and secondary schools--60 took part in 1964. Financed by fees of the participants, the sessions were held in India, Spain, and the United Kingdom.⁸² There are several hundred similar programs of this type. At St. Olaf College, Minnesota, the senior class raises funds annually to send a member of the graduating class to teach English at Martin Luther School in Rimbach, Germany. An approach to international education calling for cooperative effort by community organizations, universities, schools and foreign students is found in the international summer workshops organized by Nations Incorporated of the San Francisco Bay area.⁸³ Financial support comes from local foundations and businesses. The workshops, started in 1964, have successfully provided an involvement in foreign culture for high school students and teachers who could not otherwise have experienced it.

The trend toward junior year abroad in many colleges and universities is also encouraging. Analysis of existing programs indicates 35,000 students are now taking part.⁸⁴ In the Northwest, the new Liberal Arts Study Abroad program provides a consortium for ten colleges and universities of Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Montana to provide one or more terms abroad at four European locations. The International Education office of Portland State

⁸²Taylor, World and American Teacher, op.cit., p.10.

⁸³Ibid., p.163-4

⁸⁴Ibid., p.135.

University is offering for the first time in the summer of 1971 a Russian cultural program of seven weeks study and travel in which six of the Soviet republics will be visited.

All such programs can be a resource for providing teachers the insights needed in a global view, as well as bringing about foreign contacts for more students in our schools. But even with the trend toward increasing exchange and study abroad, the numbers of teachers who can be expected to have this kind of opportunity are relatively small in number. As a means of providing for a global view in our schools, we cannot hope to depend simply on present means of international education through government and educational organization funds. However, we have barely begun to think of other ways in which teacher training and innovation could extend the goals of international education, or as we prefer to look upon it, a global view.

Every teacher's college and department of education can make a constructive contribution in social studies that is more basic and less costly than opportunities for study abroad. The tendency of college courses to rely on the lecture method gives the future teacher no experience with the "inquiry method" which he will find necessary in using the new curriculum tools at the high school level. In a study of "methods" textbooks in 1963, Ballinger found only two that recognized that controversial issues include value-involved questions.⁸⁵ Also, there is a dearth of courses

⁸⁵Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.66.

on international relations; and the usual Western Civilization course leaves no time for the study of non-Western cultures. Just this year a compendium of college courses on "Peace and World Order" has been assembled which provides excellent examples of outlines and course materials from a variety of ways of approaching the subject, whether political, economic, sociological, religious or philosophical.⁸⁶ Lastly, practice teaching experience could be sought in a "foreign" culture in the United States whenever feasible, depending only upon the alertness of the local college or school system.

Teacher preparation for social studies in the nuclear age has lagged behind the preparation of teaching materials, but the individual teacher can help remedy this lack in the way in which he organizes and presents his course, even within the limits of the curriculum guide of his school system. In the next chapter we shall consider in some detail the way the teaching method used affects the goal achieved.

D. THE STATE'S ROLE

At this point it is appropriate to raise the question, what kind of limits or guidelines does the state or local school system set? To what extent does the "public" determine what shall be taught? A study of state courses of study by Samford in 1954 convinced the writer that no curricula pattern was suggested by

⁸⁶Studies Toward Peace, The Student Forum, op.cit..

the statement of objectives contained in them.⁸⁷ Another later study of state laws regarding curriculum in all fifty states concluded that most legislatures prescribe subject matter without clearly expressing objectives of the statute.⁸⁸ Since the McCarthy days of the 1950s there has been a lessening of expressed public concern. Use of controversial materials in the classroom has actually been encouraged in the 1960s, despite the continuing objections of right wing groups in some communities. A 1961 study found that a conspiracy theory of politics has been a principal characteristic of that group.⁸⁹ However, another study (Minott, 1962) found a shift occurring among new veterans away from the narrow, dogmatic character of the earlier veteran-advocated citizenship education.⁹⁰ There is actually conflicting evidence on the question of restraints on the teacher's freedom of inquiry. Perhaps teachers reflect the uncertainties of their own background and the general restrictions on political activity by teachers. A National Education Association study in 1962, while finding teachers reported little opposition to teaching about Communism and the United Nations, did find a dearth of instructional materials on UNESCO in California, and there also was evident restriction in book selection.⁹¹ The latter finding was made in the wake

⁸⁷Price, Needed Research in Teaching of Social Studies, op.cit., p.97. (Or Social Studies, XLV, April 1954, p.134-37.)

⁸⁸Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.68.

⁸⁹Ibid., p.67.

⁹⁰Ibid., p.68

⁹¹Ibid., p.63.

of Los Angeles and Marin County controversies over UN and UNESCO materials in 1960.

Portland, Oregon schools recognize the need for controversial materials and issue a brief statement of guiding principles. It encourages a variety of materials to give experience in making choices, but requires that those which would urge changing the American society by force be labelled as propaganda and be used under guidance for comparative purposes. In general, it is probable that teachers have more latitude in treating controversial issues than they realize or even wish to try out.

Usually the state's requirements set minimal goals for content, general statements about preparation for good citizenship, and establish criteria for teacher certification. In addition, the approved textbook list is determined either locally or at the state level. As an example of content, several states require a course to be taught about communism, thirteen require some type of world history; only one, New Mexico, requires five semester hours in international affairs before teacher certification.⁹² The interest of the public in preparing students for good citizenship in the world of the future will be best served by enlarging its meaning as, for example, including an understanding of communism as one of several forces affecting international stability. Such an approach can still make clear the difference between values and facts, but in a larger, global context.

As for teacher certification requirements, the trend as

⁹²Intercom, op.cit., p.34-5.

determined by a National Education Association research project between 1964-7 found forty states already use an approved-program approach for certification, accepting the recommendation of the college in programs previously agreed upon with the State Department of Education.⁹³ By 1967, only the following six states did not report use of the approved-program approach in some degree: Alaska, District of Columbia, Hawaii, Idaho, Massachusetts, and Mississippi.⁹⁴ There is still need for a more flexible interpretation of accrediting. California alone accepts eighteen months of Peace Corps experience in teaching abroad as a satisfactory full substitute for other certification requirements. Oregon is one of eleven states which grant temporary certificates to Peace Corps returnees under certain circumstances, and nine states and the District of Columbia allow Peace Corps teaching experience to substitute for student teaching.⁹⁵ The Peace Corps experience, which is short-term, providing intensive language training and achievement of cultural proficiency, has lessons for educating teachers in world affairs. Academic intelligence must be fused with social sensitivity. Experience in a culture other than one's own sharpens the growth and development of the teacher.⁹⁶ He must learn to sustain his integrity while accomp-

⁹³Taylor, World and American Teacher, op.cit., p.201 (footnote)

⁹⁴A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the U.S., National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (Washington, D.C., 1967 edition) p.35.

⁹⁵Taylor, World and American Teacher, op.cit., p.204-5

⁹⁶Ibid., p.109.

lishing the educational task. This ability is a needed part of knowing one's subject and being able to teach it to others.

Those who question substituting Peace Corps experience in certification requirements are likely to be State education officers or professional educators who assume that the history and philosophy of American education plus some experience of teaching in American schools can have no substitute.⁹⁷

The State Departments of Education could speed up the process of fostering a world outlook in course content and certification requirements by some of the following: (1) they can expedite conferences in international education, seeking federal funds for international education through AID and the U.S. Office of Education, (2) they can be alert to local employment opportunities for foreign teachers, especially those of non-Western cultures, and (3) they can encourage the expansion of the sister institution idea with the resulting exchange of teachers and students. This is especially useful in smaller communities where fewer foreign contacts occur. In Oregon, a former Social Studies Specialist of the State Board of Education was the first President of the Oregon Partners of the Alliance, a part of the national "Partners" program developed by AID. Since 1965, because of the initial interest of Max Harriger, exchanges of teachers, students, business and professional leaders, and teaching materials have been continuing with Costa Rica, Oregon's "partner" country. A group of high school students and teachers from Costa Rica spent two months in

⁹⁷Ibid., p.208.

1970 for the third time, reciprocating visits of six groups of Oregon students who have visited Costa Rica. The 1970 group from Oregon totalled 45 students and accompanying adults from Clackamas High School, who presented a circus that was also performed in six additional Latin American countries of the Partner program and incidentally helped them raise funds. There are now 42 Latin country partners and 40 U.S. state partners involved in these exchanges. In a few states, state funds have been budgeted to assist this exchange, although it is supported primarily by private funds.

In regard to curriculum, the State can assist in making available sample materials of newer curricula and social science studies projects to smaller school districts who would be unable to have resources to keep up with the current proliferation. This is being done to some extent in Oregon. Included among the new curricula which the State Department of Education has on file are Project Africa and World Studies Inquiry (see p.36). Other activities Oregon has encouraged are high school class participation in the Foreign Policy Association "Great Decisions" program each year, which deals with eight topics of international concern. The activities of the International Relations Clubs in many high schools throughout Oregon are encouraged by the Institute of International Studies at the University of Oregon. The Institute took on the coordinating task in the early 1960s after the groundwork was laid by the Oregon Education Association under a Ford Foundation grant. The IRL clubs each year decide on an international area of emphasis

to be carried out in the program of each school, and the clubs conclude with a state conference based on that theme.

The present state adoption system of textbooks needs reassessment, as the current trend away from social studies textbooks increases. An adoption system tends to reduce the availability of current materials or will be ignored in practice. In social studies, last year's printed word may already be insufficiently up-to-date. On the other hand, a listing of recommended curriculum materials, with the basis for their recommendation, would be useful, less limiting, and could be frequently updated.

The Portland Public Schools have set an example of encouraging a world view through the broad outline of the Instructional Guide (1967) for Elementary and High Schools. They state that "the social studies curriculum should evolve from problems that face mankind,"⁹⁸ and at each grade level there are references to our international role. For instance, at grade 5, "Becoming a World Power" is one the content subjects, and at grade 6, "Assuming responsibilities in the world community."⁹⁹ These give opportunities for more than an ethnocentric, expansionist view. Recognition of the world outlook is already an accepted guideline. However, if the actual teaching materials are limited to a United States view of world responsibility rather than a global (multi-national or humanitarian) view, the provincialism

⁹⁸Portland Public Schools, Instructional Guide (1967), p.191.

⁹⁹Ibid., p.197.

of the past is continued. At each grade level the teacher will have the opportunity to encourage the global view, bringing current and historical materials to the cultural area under study in his application of the discovery approach. The Portland Public Schools have encouraged the innovative teacher as cited in the two programs in Chapter 3. Both programs were financed by outside grants. Other means of increasing the number of such teachers exist through school sponsored in-service or summer workshops as well as by the several ways described for improving the entire teacher training program at the university level.

E. THE STUDENT'S ROLE

The final ingredient of the education process--the student--has become an increasingly vocal element. First, the emphasis is on the current scene, on human concerns, and to some extent on action. Although not all students are greatly interested in what happens beyond their domestic world, social science researchers have found that by the eighth grade, the political socialization of the child is well on its way to completion.¹⁰⁰ It was found that the change in attitudes between the freshman and senior years of high school is relatively small as compared with the level of attitudes evident by the freshman year. It is the high school years that will be the only time for many students to realize the importance of their attitudes as they affect the international

¹⁰⁰ Robert D. Hess and David Easton, "The Role of the Elementary School in Political Socialization," School Review, Vol. 70, No. 3, Autumn 1962, p.260.

decisions of our government in the future. Certainly television puts the world in the student's living room, as never possible for the previous generation. The educational process should utilize this exposure positively. The student brings to the classroom his values plus a great many ideas of his own, half-formed, but a beginning for study which the teacher can build upon. Some of the current revolt of youth may be related to a disparity between early education and the reality he sees as he becomes older. The teacher's task is to help clarify the relation between certain values and the variety of facts which are present. Perhaps a new student sophistication explains why the inquiry method has come to be the common tool of the new social studies.

The next chapter will examine how the teacher who uses such an approach can combine it with the conceptual process to give a global orientation in his classroom.

CHAPTER IV

THE INQUIRY METHOD AND THE WORLD VIEW

In pursuing a goal of teaching social studies from a global viewpoint, this paper makes the assumption that the student's attitudes can change as a result of the methods used, and that the use of concepts in presenting subject matter is equally important in achieving such a change. We have seen in Chapter 3 a variety of ways in which the materials and the teacher can assist this process. We need, now, to be more specific in how the inquiry method and the use of concepts, as described in Chapter 2, complement and assist each other.

The inquiry or discovery method has won support for many reasons but the three aspects that concern us, in pursuing the global view, are that it be flexible, serving a range of abilities, that it provide a means of adapting social science methods to the classroom, and that it provide an opportunity to deal with controversy and explore values. The usual approach would be, first, to recognize a problem from some given data; second, to formulate and state a tentative hypothesis; third, to gether data required to test hypothesis; fourth, to evaluate and interpret data in a re-evaluation of hypothesis; fifth, state a generalization.¹⁰¹

¹⁰¹ Edwin Fenton, The New Social Studies, NASSP Bulletin, Vol. 51, No. 317, March 1967 (Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York) p.62.

The discovery method calls for certain criteria for critical thinking: scrutinize all pertinent evidence available, determine author's point of view, distinguish between fact and opinion, accept a belief because of reasons that are better than a competing belief, accept conclusions provisionally, base conclusions on logic and sufficient evidence, be able to verify information on which based, anticipate the results of differing actions, follow scientific methods in utilizing information.¹⁰² With the wealth of factual material available, current and historical, the inquiry method requires organizing concepts for carrying out studies based on the foregoing criteria. These concepts become the organizing devices which the various disciplines have in common, against which choice of subject matter and its relative importance is determined. Values may be tested as the concepts chosen are given factual content. The subject matter chosen to illustrate our following discussion is suggested because it both implements a global view and is accessible to the average student by discovery methods.

The discovery method starts where the student is, thus making it adaptable for a range of ability. It is important to enlarge the horizons of all students regardless of age or educational achievement, because human needs are universal. To illustrate, the inner-city high school student who knows little about the arguments for our government's sending troops to Vietnam,

¹⁰² Maurice P. Hunt and Lawrence E. Metcalf, Teaching High School Social Studies (Harper & Row, New York, 1968) p.76.

can consider the consequences of suspicion and distrust which he finds exist in his neighborhood when the local government authority, represented by the police, does not have a means of communication with the community. The connections between freedom, responsibility and authority can be pursued further through case studies. The role of conflict can be differentiated from the means used to resolve conflict. Analogies on an international scale can be pursued as the student's ability dictates. Even though slow learners may not be expected to assimilate more complex material, the application of the discovery method through reality situations can meet the needs of the non-verbal child. This was the basis of Michaelis' World Studies Inquiry for students with reading problems, previously cited. A study by Oliver and Baker (1959) with slow students in grades 7 and 11 also found that the case method challenged the student to make decisions about social problems.¹⁰³

The methods of social science, such as surveys, case studies, and experiments, have been slow to be adopted in the public schools, despite the spectacular achievements of the scientific method in the physical sciences. A drawback to their ready adaptation exists in the nature of social science research itself. It has been problem-oriented with a high degree of specialization. We use the term "social science" here as the application of the scientific method in the study of social issues. "Social studies"

¹⁰³ Donald Oliver and Susan Baker, "The Case Method," Social Education, Vol. 23, No. 1, January 1959, p.27.

as a school subject is concerned with practical knowledge and the values associated with good citizenship. It needs to have the input from social science to keep its content as accurate and up to date as possible. In Chapter 5 some of the ways in which current and proposed social science research can contribute to social studies programs will be discussed. It is necessary, first, for secondary teachers to recognize the value of social science for their teaching and demand a closer application.

Possibly a general awareness of the contributions of social science has played a part in a trend in some places during the last decade for an interdisciplinary focus in social studies, with a greater interest in the current problem approach. Perhaps the most comprehensive state plan for social studies curriculum for grades K - 14 was accomplished in California in 1959, in which specific generalizations taken from eight social sciences (geography, history, political science, economics, anthropology, psychology, sociology and philosophy) were developed as guides for a basic curriculum.¹⁰⁴ The most usual pattern of curriculum revision is characterized by changing emphasis of subject matter within existing courses, with more emphasis on international understanding and cultures as related to current events.¹⁰⁵ Although separate courses in economics, sociology, psychology, international relations, etc. are increasingly apparent at the twelfth grade level, the new social studies materials described

¹⁰⁴Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.21

¹⁰⁵Ibid., p.15.

in Chapter 3 (page 34) are appropriate at several grade levels, and to a greater or lesser degree draw upon several disciplines, whether as case studies, area studies, or integrated approach. Considering the many stages of social studies revision existing across the spectrum of secondary schools, it is still too early to say more than that now is a time to reassess how the global view can best be achieved as curriculum revision continues.

Probably the main deterrent to social science application in the classroom has been the lack of interest or training of the teacher. Not only does using social science materials require dealing with controversial materials, but it could require different time planning. While recognizing these limitations, there are now new opportunities to obtain pertinent data through the social sciences. By selecting questions and research materials which are based on a global view, a tool is provided in the discovery method. Our own democratic values encourage the rational, scientific approach--as opposed to an authoritarian one. The social studies classroom should offer this experience.

There are several ways in which the teacher can apply the scientific method in his class. Experiments, analytical case studies, interviews, surveys and field experience have been successfully tried with students of varying abilities, grade 9 to 12.¹⁰⁶ The process of carrying these out provides a means of reducing the remoteness of international studies and may thus

¹⁰⁶ Doyle Casteel, "Utilizing the Methods of the Political Scientist in the Social Studies Classroom," Peabody J. of Ed., Vol. 40, 1963, p.226.

increase the student's motivation. For example, an experiment and two case studies are used in the unit "On Conflict" of the Diablo Valley Project.¹⁰⁷ The experiment titled "Prisoner's Dilemma" examines hostile and cooperative choices. The first case study analyzes data on "Behavior of Escalation in War." The second case study is entitled "Impact of Nuclear War" and is a future projection based on known facts. In each of the examples above, high student interest resulted.

In "Dilemma," two students (prisoners) are placed at desks with a barrier between them so that they cannot see each other. The experiment deals with the effect on the decision to "confess" or "keep silent" resulting from combining four different types of communication (none, prior communication, reversible decisions, non-simultaneous decision) with three types of orientation instruction (be cooperative, be competitive, or be themselves). An electronic flashing device used, added to the interest as well as the game aspect, although flash cards could be used as well. Experimental records are kept of the choices made as the game progresses and the result is a new understanding of threat, defense and aggression, i.e. the psychology of conflict. Variations of the game are also suggested entitled "Students and Principal" and "Government's Dilemma"--all non-zero-sum, two-person games. This was the initiating unit of the course and therefore was intended to open up the question of how you go about solving a problem--the method of interaction rather than solutions.

¹⁰⁷Kirkland, op.cit., p.3-4, 6-12, 25-41, 51-2.

The two case studies were well received because of the up-to-date, fresh information, and they led to vigorous questioning and a sense of immediacy of the problems. The first case study is based on a quantitative study of behavior of warring nations completed by Dr. John Voevodsky at Stanford University in 1968. Using graphs, comparisons are drawn between armed force strength, casualties, and deaths in six wars in which the United States has been involved and escalation-saturation patterns studied. In the second case study, several studies of the thermal and blast effects of varying sizes of nuclear bombs are mapped and the implications for the survivors raised. Tom Stonier's Nuclear Disaster (Meridian paperback, 1964) is especially recommended reading in this study for the average high school student. Visual aids are used in the "Impact of Nuclear War" sub-unit. Thus, the choice of both materials and methods led to heightened concern with the concept of conflict, both its interpersonal and international aspects, and the subject matter reinforces a global orientation.

A different device, the sociological questionnaire, has been used in the project entitled "Sociological Resources for the Social Studies." Here the student uses a questionnaire as a means of content analysis of a number of readings or case studies.¹⁰⁸ They are short, dramatically planned units intended to involve the student in using sociological data and concepts, and may be used in other curriculum sequences. The problems dealt with are inter-

¹⁰⁸ Sanders and Tanck, op.cit., p.433.

national in scope. The materials are based on the assumption that students learn better if they actively participate in gathering and analyzing data to reach conclusions. Some employ techniques of probability and sampling, as in the hypothesis study, "Testing for Truth." An episode on "Incidence and Effects of Poverty in the U.S." presents statistics, case studies and readings. An episode on "Leadership in American Society" includes a student-attitude questionnaire. After class discussion, content analysis diagrams are used in comparing two series of readings. In another episode, analyses of Chinese land reforms, the roles of youth and women in the family, and the commune are made in a case study of social change in China. There will be 40 episodes in all, with eight scheduled for publication in 1970.

The foregoing ideas serve to suggest that directed student experience may be more effective in producing an interest in what is happening world-wide than simply reading about the history of a country or even discussing the meaning of the headlines. More important, they provide experience with observation of evidence, such as causation and consequences, and the degree to which conclusions can be drawn. The method has been applied through case studies to historical data as well as current events. Because of variations in the maturity level of students, some may prefer interviews or surveys, as opposed to more complex experiments. But in each case, inquiry is the basis for drawing conclusions. The choice of data can be determined by the concepts underlying the global view, such as conflict, change, and the individual and group responsibility therefor.

We have pointed to the controversial nature of social studies material and that its evaluation should bring out differences in values. An important difficulty with teaching social studies in the past has been a failure to deal with value conflicts, in favor of presenting facts selected to support a single set of values. This result is fairly evident in the treatment of communism in many textbooks. An unpublished study of the American Political Science Association emphasized the inadequacy of the large majority of locally-prepared units on Communism.¹⁰⁹ Other studies have criticized such courses because they are militantly anti-communist and have resulted from pressures for indoctrination. Although historical material on Communist Russia is needed to fill a factual gap, the material is often presented in such a way as to draw unfavorable comparisons with the American democratic society. For example, generalizations are made without supporting data; emotional terms such as "kindly," "humanitarian," customarily are used regarding the United States, but "conformity" or "ruthless" regarding the USSR.¹¹⁰ If such generalizations are made without substantiation, they merely reenforce fears and hostility without any basis for understanding. The problem for understanding lies in identifying the common ground of needs and attributes--as well as differences. Schools presenting a negative view of Communism see it justified under the goal of education for good citizenship.

¹⁰⁹ Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.72.

¹¹⁰ Oregon, State Department of Education, Understanding the Nature of Communism, p.64.

The question of what constitutes indoctrination, or the question of the desirability of providing it labelled as such, cannot be settled here. It points up the need to encourage the inquiry method and critical thinking as a tool in preparation for citizenship in a global world.

A study by Shaver (1965) made of 93 secondary level texts, mostly American government and civics, found that reflective thinking was not encouraged--that there was no provision to handle clashes of values, evaluate societal issues, systematically conceptualize a pluralistic society, or prepare youth to deal with issues realistically.¹¹¹ Shaver felt that students were exhorted to weigh facts based on source of information but with little in the way of a conceptual framework to weigh the value conflicts against. Discussion of propaganda techniques was brief. There was a lack of awareness of value conflicts or discrepancies between ideals and reality. Shaver's findings supported earlier analyses by Krug, Alexander, and the American Economic Association in their conclusions that leading textbooks in economics, social problems and United States history did not analyze controversy, but merely presented varying viewpoints without regard to differences in quality of reasoning or intellectual rigor.¹¹² Massialas in 1961 designed a set of criteria with special reference to the adequate treatment of controversy to assist teachers in the task

¹¹¹James P. Shaver, "Reflective Thinking, Values and Social Studies Textbooks," School Review, Vol. 73, 1965, p.250.

¹¹²Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.66.

of assessing different textbooks.¹¹³ Thus a teacher might help in identifying the differing conceptual frameworks for the student.

As an example of the conceptual framework which we feel would result from a global view, war and peace are aspects of the concept of "conflict," and a motivating force in "change." Wars have been the focus of attention historically because of the great influence they have had on history. The heroes tend to be those who led "successful" wars. The efforts to achieve peace also have a long history but few high school students will recall more than one or two, such as the Rush-Bagot agreement of 1817 or the Kellogg-Briand pact of 1928. Today's social studies must reflect the new interdependence of the planet. The concept of conflict, therefore, offers a means of redistributing the emphasis from "What causes war?" to "What are the necessary conditions of peace?" The values related to each, based on the possible alternatives, then become explicit, such as how desirable is competition? freedom? security? right to dissent? majority rule? How important is religion to the value of human life? What does social justice or economic welfare mean to the student? to those in other countries? What responsibility does the individual's values commit him to? The problem of war becomes a part of conflict as one aspect of international behavior--related to issues such as the use of national power, the attainment of national security, the role of inter-governmental and non-governmental international organizations,

¹¹³ Byron G. Massialas, "Selecting a Social Studies Textbook," Social Education, Vol. 25, No.5, May 1961, p.237-8.

and the distinction between war-prone patterns and peace-prone patterns of international behavior.¹¹⁴

As these questions are applied to the international scene, perhaps the ethnocentric viewpoint will be broadened. Research into attitudes, values, and beliefs suggests a strong inverse relationship between education and ethnocentrism--the more education, the less ethnocentrism is evident.¹¹⁵ The need is to question attitudes earlier in the educational process--before leaving high school--since up to fifty percent of our students will have no further formal education.

A study of junior high school students (Aldrich, 1967) showed the effects of a non-traditional approach in grades 7 - 9. The rationale was that at no other grade level are the individual differences greater while the social studies program has been so similar (unchanged).¹¹⁶ To meet the need for a changed approach the emphasis was on more individualized learning exploration requiring value judgments and reflective thinking, whether the subject matter was the study of comparative world cultures, American history, or teenagers in the world of today. Joint teacher-pupil planning was emphasized. Evaluation was based on the development of significant concepts by the student, as checked

¹¹⁴Intercom, "Education on War/Peace, Conflict, and Change," Vol. 12, No.3, December 1970 (Center for War/Peace Studies, New York, N.Y.) p.36.

¹¹⁵Mehlinger, op.cit., p.681

¹¹⁶Julien C. Aldrich and Eugene Cottle, eds., Social Studies for Young Adolescents, NCSS Curriculum series No.6, (Washington,D.C., 1967) p.11. The prevalent national picture, reenforced by state

by both subjective and non-subjective teacher devices and student self-evaluation.¹¹⁷ The teacher was seen as playing a key role by his ability to develop the individualized approach within basic guidelines. This study of five different schools encourages us in the applicability of the inquiry method based on a conceptual approach, as appropriate to a wide range of subject matter and as young as the seventh grade. There the international content, though not a primary goal, was present in varying degrees growing out of the curriculum objectives and their implementation by the teacher.

There is some evidence that discussion of controversial issues marked by a clash of personal beliefs is likely to increase the motivation of the student.¹¹⁸ This may be the result of an effort on the part of the student to resolve a discrepancy. It is possible that the apparent interest generated by audiovisual materials in students, previously mentioned, is thus related to motivation since more senses become involved. The questioning of one's values is an intensely personal thing. If the teacher uses the open-ended "why," required in reflective thinking, rather than putting the emphasis on "who," "when" and "where," of the factual knowledge

education department requirements, has been to require geography, U.S. history, and citizenship as separate subjects at the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade levels and to resist innovation either in method or in subject matter.

¹¹⁷ Ibid., p.78, 82-4.

¹¹⁸ Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.70.

approach, the student participation tends to increase.¹¹⁹ Another study indicates that "importance" of the issue is basic to the choice of information made. Learning favored selection of information based on the first of each of the following pairs of information stimuli: strong rather than weak, good rather than bad, active rather than passive.¹²⁰ Whatever may be said for or against engaging in discussion of controversial issues, it cannot very well be avoided in the education of responsible citizens. Discussion involves the student in the exploration of the ideas being considered and recognizes that learning is not simply a one-way process--from teacher to student. Certainly more research is needed to determine what difference in learning occurs, if any, because of the discovery method, but the motivation is evidently increased. It has been difficult to obtain any reliable research on how best to teach subject matter. Even less is known about teaching attitudes and feelings,¹²¹ although there is sufficient research to show that through more understandings of the behavioral sciences, attitude change can be affected.¹²²

In supporting the inquiry method as a desirable means of enlarging the opportunity for a world view, it is assumed that

¹¹⁹Byron G. Massialas, ed., The Indiana Experiments in Inquiry: Social Studies, Bulletin of the School of Education, Vol. 39, No. 3, May 1963 (Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.) p. 71.

¹²⁰Charles A. McClelland, "Selecting and Processing Information in World Affairs Education," Social Education, Vol. 32, No. 7, November 1968, p. 667.

¹²¹Sanders and Tanck, op.cit., p. 448.

¹²²Kenworthy, op.cit., p. 41.

there may be more than one possible route in approaching a body of knowledge. The sequel is that different parts of the world may have different approaches to any given problem.¹²³ The distinction needs to be understood as to whether the differences arise from different understandings of the facts, different frames of reference, different sets of values, or different standards for valid evidence. It is openness to other evidence and other points of view which should be considered a function of education. It is customary to assume, as expounded by Metcalf and Gross, that our educational system has been intended to preserve our present society, simply by producing good citizens and transmitting organized knowledge.¹²⁴ But the questionings of goals and methods which are prevalent in our society today reflect the need for a willingness to search for a broader frame of reference, i.e. the global view. Implied is a needed ability to tolerate ambiguity--to live without hard and fast answers. It has been found in a study by Budner that an inability to tolerate ambiguity is related to authoritarian attitudes.¹²⁵ The teacher should recognize that there are times when the discipline of social science not only results in ambiguity, but runs counter to popular attitudes if based on unquestioning support of the status quo. Nevertheless, if our schools are to succeed in preparing their graduates for a

¹²³See "Let us Examine our Attitude Toward Peace," a series of readings on World order, available from the World Law Fund.

¹²⁴Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.2.

¹²⁵Ibid., p.71.

democratic society in a time of rapid change, the open-ended answer should be encouraged in the context of an interdependent world.

As we consider new ways of approaching problems, we should look at the implications of a world community. What evidences are there of its development? The traveler already knows there is a common language of highway signs in large parts of the world. The United Nations flag can serve as a near-global symbol for 126 member countries out of some 130 independent nations now in existence. Even the concept of the world citizen has made a beginning.¹²⁶ There is a need to explore in what ways authority grows and becomes accepted, how the nationalism of today might be modified to achieve a world community tomorrow, just as the needs of the original thirteen colonies became the basis for a nation based upon the consent of most of the member states. Whatever current facts or historical evidence are used, the method of critical inquiry will provide an opportunity for innovative thinking.

The foregoing suggestions for ways of using the inquiry method to implement the global viewpoint, are not intended to limit teaching to this method alone. It may be that some combination of condensed, factual presentation (by outline, film or lecture) with individual assignments is preferable for the average student. Our intention is to suggest what opportunities lie in the discovery method, both because of the availability of the newer materials which lend themselves to it, but because it builds on the need

¹²⁶World Citizens Registry, P.O. Box 27044, San Francisco, California 94127.

that the student sees to make his education relevant to his world. In the process of using this method, the specific goals of the global viewpoint outlined early in this paper (p. 21) can be strengthened. The concepts of change, conflict, authority, order, freedom, and responsibility will have been examined with a range of data chosen as far as possible for its world perspective.

CHAPTER V

NEEDED RESEARCH FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Our search for better ways to teach, using a global orientation with the inquiry method as the prime example, leaves many questions unanswered. There is the need for more definitive research in the theory of learning itself. Of particular concern to the social studies teacher are those questions related to change of attitudes and social change. New political, economic, and behavioral research findings need to be included in the social studies class discussion.

In raising the level of awareness of the student in a global context, the teacher will need to have a frequent, concise means of keeping current. One such service in the war/peace area is now available through the World Law Fund.¹²⁷ Since the fall of 1969 they have printed "Ways and Means of Teaching about World Order," a one page summary of specific teaching techniques and visual aids for classroom use, with some assessment of their usefulness, and other sources of world order materials. The Foreign Policy Association has recommended in its recent study of international education that an inventory of available teaching-learning resources in that field be created and periodically

¹²⁷"Ways and Means of Teaching about World Order," No. 1-6, Fall 1969 - Spring 1971. World Law Fund, 11 W. 42nd St., New York, N.Y. 10036.

up-dated.¹²⁸ The suggestions contained in that study are available in Number 4 of the Foreign Policy Association's "New Dimension" series. The FPA School Services newsletter has been an excellent source of recent teaching helps for all social studies areas, but has now been discontinued. The most recent effort is being undertaken by the Center for War/Peace Studies which hopes to compile information on curricula being used in elementary and secondary schools dealing with war, peace, conflict and change, and provide a means of disseminating this material.¹²⁹ Efforts to keep current at present depend primarily on local teacher initiative aided by current periodicals. (Intercom is one of the most useful of these.)

Underlying the lack of application of social science research to education has been specialization. The interest of the social scientist has been in training scholars for his own discipline rather than providing data for classroom teachers; and the educator has been preoccupied with problems of curriculum evaluation, learning theory and teaching method, largely to the exclusion of the contributions to content which social science continues to produce.

Some questions that we might ask of social science research in our goal of meeting the changing needs of a global society are: in what way is social change and development related to political violence? what is the nature of conflict behavior? how do we change attitudes? how can we best develop critical thinking skills?

¹²⁸ Becker, op.cit., p.12. Also New Dimensions, no.4, "International Education for Spaceship Earth," Foreign Policy Association.

¹²⁹ Center for War/Peace Studies, 218 East 18th Street, New York, N.Y. 10003.

what is the role of identity in nationalism? in achieving world community?

Basic research in the role of political violence on social change is currently receiving much attention. One of the findings of the Report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence in June, 1969, was on the effects of the level of development, degree of frustration (coercion), and rate of change as affecting violence in a sample of eighty-four nations.¹³⁰ During the period 1948-65, the United States fell at a median position, i.e. half of the nations studied exceeded United States in violence, half did not attain it. Such data for a world view input is usually not available to the high school classroom, despite its importance to social studies problems. A further application of the study of violence comes from research by Werner Levi (1960) who states that formation of institutions leads to a diminution of violence, and this is the assumption of those who propose world government or similar routes to world order.¹³¹ Whatever the cause, Denton & Phillips found an upswing in the level of violence every 25 - 30 years based on the period 1480-1900 from Quincy Wright's compilation of wars.¹³² Some new research findings

¹³⁰ Hugh D. Graham and Ted R. Gurr, "Violence in America," Historical and Comparative Perspective, Vol. II. A Report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. (Bantam Books, New York, N.Y., June 1969) p.648-53, 673.

¹³¹ Elizabeth Converse, "The War of All Against All," J. of Conflict Resolution, Vol.12, No.4, December 1968, p.485.

¹³² Frank H. Denton and Warren Phillips, "Patterns in the History of Violence," J. of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 12, No.2, June 1968, p.193.

not yet publicized were summarized by Dr. Raymond Tanter for the Diablo Valley Education Project, including the following:¹³³

(1) Countries with annual per capita incomes exceeding \$700 or below \$100 tend to have very little violence; those between \$100 and \$700 tend to have the highest level.¹³⁴

(2) Presence or absence of past turmoil (riots, etc.) can be predicted in 92 of 119 nations studied. There is direct correlation with relative deprivation of groups. In more developed countries, economic improvement followed by relative decline shows a direct relation to domestic violence.¹³⁵

(3) When conciliatory bargainers are paired with each other in negotiations, the prospect for mutually satisfactory outcomes is highest; when belligerents are paired, outcomes are somewhat lower; but when a belligerent and a cooperative bargainer are paired, outcomes are lowest. (These psychological effects of conflict can be studied in the "Prisoner's Dilemma" game mentioned on p. 67.)¹³⁶

One should not accept the summary statements quoted above without further proof. More research and information are needed to determine what the causal relationships are. The statements do

¹³³Kirkland, op.cit., p.84-5.

¹³⁴A study of economic development and political violence by Feierabend et al gives extensive data supportive of this statement. See Graham & Gurr, op.cit., p.519.

¹³⁵Graham & Gurr, op.cit., p.500. Corroboration of this statement may be found in a study by James C. Davies.

¹³⁶Kirkland, op.cit., p.7.

indicate a promising direction for seeking social science data which bear directly on international studies.

The entire area of conflict studies has much application here and has scarcely been noticed below the college level. The concept of conflict as applied to the international area poses a two-fold problem, one, predisposing conditions and, two, what and how controls are carried out. War is a particular kind of institutional control--an institutionalized violence. It occurs as the result of national decision-making which is itself the result of both national attributes (physical and psychological) and international exchanges (e.g. trade, diplomacy). Both variables are part of a process where who has a right to control will affect the decision as to who is controlling conflict.¹³⁷ Thus, for example, the forms of control may be military or non-military, overt or subtle. Game theory has been a useful analytic device for our government's military theorists to clarify a conflict situation. But when such elements as love or community of feeling enter the study of conflict, these are alien to game theory and demonstrate its limitations.¹³⁸ The complexity of the conditions of conflict is beyond the scope of this paper, but by pointing to some of the questions that can be raised, we hope to bring new approaches to the treatment of the subject of war in particular and conflict in general. We have reason to

¹³⁷Converse, op.cit., p.474, 485, 504.

¹³⁸Kenneth E. Boulding, Conflict and Defense (Harper and Row, New York, 1963) p.57.

believe that conflict between nations tends to reinforce national authority.¹³⁹ In looking at the global view one needs to examine the barriers which cause national and international loyalties to be competitive. Both loyalties may be needed. How can the differences be minimized? Studies of trans-national problems can be helpful, such as the current interest in the environment.

Another area of research of direct interest in this study involves Leon Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance. According to this theory, learners seek to solve problems in which they are intimately involved.¹⁴⁰ Analogous cases confront a student with the necessity to reexamine his values, and if he finds a contradiction with the evidence he may shift his views.¹⁴¹ Is there a clue here to changing attitudes? Simulation games have been developed on the theory that they could help change attitudes, the steps being: receiving information, responding, valuing (argument, considering alternatives, commitment), organizing for decision, recognizing one's role. By changing the response at different steps of the game, the effect on attitude can be demonstrated. Some criticisms and limitations in the use of simulations have already been mentioned (Chapter 3, p. 40). The usefulness of simulations has not yet been sufficiently researched

¹³⁹ Herbert C. Kelman, "Education for the Concept of a Global Society," Social Education, Vol. 32, No. 7, November 1968, p.664.

¹⁴⁰ Samuel Brodbelt, "Simulation in the Social Studies: An Overview," Social Education, Vol. 33, No. 2, February 1969, p.177.

¹⁴¹ Irving Morrissett, ed., Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula, (Holt, Rinehard & Winston, New York, 1967) p.122.

to ensure that, as presently used, they are more than a fad. However, the use of simulations has mushroomed out of the realization that game theory could apply mathematics to the complex problems of sociology and economics and especially the areas of conflict and coalition formation. Using such techniques it has been shown that an increase in conflict will result in the polarization of issues frequently observed in conflicts.¹⁴² However, as noted above, game theory has its limitations and users of simulations need to be aware of this.

We need more research on what conceptual systems children have. They may have limited understanding of abstract concepts even at high school level. Piaget says that at 13 - 14 years the child becomes capable of propositional thinking.¹⁴³ The student is still learning to disentangle his self image and find his place in society. His attitudes toward authority have been shaped by family, church, school, government, mass media.¹⁴⁴ A cross-national study by Lambert and Klineberg in 1959 found that the stereotypes produced in children about nations and peoples came largely from individuals and the communications media rather than books or travel.¹⁴⁵ The society has given him only

¹⁴²Allan Mazur, "A Nonrational Approach to Theories of Conflict and Coalitions," J. of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 12, No.2, June 1968, p.205.

¹⁴³Price, Needed Research in Teaching of Social Studies, op.cit., p.90.

¹⁴⁴Ralph M. Goldman, "Self-Identity in the Context of War and Peace," (mimeo) (Diablo Valley Education Project, Dec. 1969) p.11-18.

¹⁴⁵Massialas and Smith, op.cit., p.97.

the bare beginning of awareness of a world community. Most of his heroes have been national, not world, heroes.

The teacher has the opportunity and the necessity to seek out ways of bringing the most recent research findings to his teaching. With the expression of greater interest, a means can certainly be achieved for communicating the increasing information already available which emphasizes the relation between human values and international order.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

The function of the social studies, to educate the youth regarding the problems which will face them as adults, and to promote an understanding of our society as it relates to others on this finite planet, will require of each teacher and administrator a new awareness of the global dimension. Even the term "international" which has served in the past to cover study of foreign countries and cultures as well as United States foreign relations, is limited by referring to relations between nations. Such information is, of course, pertinent but needs to be studied in a larger context of mankind's needs. It is a way of thinking to which, hopefully, this study has pointed the way. Perhaps some of the excitement of innovative ideas and materials mentioned here will kindle a determination to reassess the approach in one's class or school.

It has been the assumption of the author in making this study that through education man can learn to control his environment. Since war is an institutionalized means of exerting power carried out by men, its containment requires new institutional understandings and devices. To create the climate for this achievement so necessary to human survival requires the kind of educational inquiry which has been outlined here.

What do the values set forth in the American Constitution

imply for our future relations with the other countries of the world, whether in regard to differing political ideologies or economic productiveness? As in a body of law we have a means of measuring performance against goals, we need to extend that judgment to include global goals. Perhaps our youth have already seen the goal without understanding the means needed.

Although it is possible and desirable to incorporate the global view at all grade levels, the thrust of this study is to urge its explicit emphasis not later than the ninth grade on, and where possible, at seventh and eighth grade level. The political awareness of many students encourages this.

There is encouragement in a slight trend since the 1950s to increase course time devoted to the social studies, accompanied by a marked increase in new materials, both discipline-centered and multi-disciplinary. There is a lack of a corresponding updating of teacher training. The teacher who accepts the validity of the point of view of this study does not have to wait upon the machinery of education, which appears to be becoming aware of the need of "international understanding" but is uneven in its implementation. By reconsidering his approach to his current curriculum with the concepts suggested here, and using the world as his backdrop for comparisons and questionings at pertinent intervals, the teacher can lay the groundwork for a citizen educated to carry out his democratic responsibility in the face of worldwide stresses.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aldrich, Julian C., ed, Social Studies for the Junior High School, NCSS Curriculum series, no. 6 (Washington, D.C., 1957)
- Aldrich, Julian C. and Eugene Cottle, eds., Social Studies for Young Adolescents: Programs for Grades 7, 8, and 9, NCSS Curriculum series, no.6 (Washington, D.C., 1967)
- Alger, Chadwick, F., "Some Problems in Improving International Education," Social Education, Vol. 32, No. 7, November 1968, p.657-660.
- Anderson, Randall C., "A Strategy for the Inquiry Approach," Social Education, Vol. 34, No. 1, January 1970, p.27-35.
- Anderson, Scarvia B., Dolores F. Ahrens, Rosemary Russell, and Donald A. Trismen, Social Studies in Secondary Schools: A Survey of Courses and Practices (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J., February 1964)
- Becker, James M., "Teaching World Affairs Tomorrow," Intercom, Vol. 9, No.5, September-October 1967 (Foreign Policy Association, New York, N.Y.) p.26-85.
- _____, "An Examination of Objectives, Needs and Priorities in International Education in U.S. Secondary and Elementary Schools" (mimeo) (Foreign Policy Association, New York, July 1969) 19pp
- _____, et al, Symposium on "What Should Kids be Taught about Peace and War?" War/Peace Report, Vol. 11, No.1, January 1971, p.3-9.
- Becker, James M. and Howard D. Mehlinger, eds., International Dimensions in the Social Studies, 38th Yearbook, NCSS (Washington, D.C., 1968)
- Bibliography of New Social Studies and Directory of Social Studies Projects, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Bulletin, March 1967 (Washington, D.C.) p.90-96.
- Bondurant, Joan V., "Forcing Change and Defending Values without Violence," (mimeo) (Diablo Valley Education Project, Orinda, California, June 1968)

Boulding, Kenneth E., Conflict and Defense (Harper and Row, New York, N.Y., 1963) Chapter 3.

_____, "Education for the Spaceship Earth," Social Education, Vol. 32, No.7, November 1968, p. 648-52.

Broadbelt, Samuel, "Simulation in the Social Studies: An Overview," Social Education, Vol. 33, No. 2, February 1969, p.176-9.

Buchanan, William and Hadley Cantril, How Nations See Each Other, (a UNESCO publication, University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Ill., 1953)

Casteel, Doyle, "Utilizing the Methods of the Political Scientist in the Social Studies Classroom," Peabody J. of Education, Vol. 40, 1963, p.219-227.

Coffin, Tristram, "Washington Window," VISTA, Vol. 5, No.6, May-June 1970, p.90

Cole, Desmond, "The UN International School: An Approach to Social Studies," Social Education, Vol. 33, No. 1, January 1969, p.31-36.

Converse, Elizabeth, "The War of All Against All," J. of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 12, No. 4, December 1968, p.471-532.

Denton, Frank H. and Warren Phillips, "Patterns in the History of Violence," J. of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 12, No.2, June 1968, p.182-195.

Diablo Valley Education Project, "Teaching about War and Peace," 50 Vashell Way, Orinda, California.

_____, Joan V. Bondurant, "Forcing Change and Defending Values without Violence" (mimeo) 15 pp., June 1968.

_____, Ralph M. Goldman, "Self-Identity in the Context of War and Peace" (mimeo) December 1969, 25 pp.

_____, Olin Kirkland, On Conflict: a curriculum unit (mimeo), pre-publication copy, 1970, 87 pp.

_____, Robert C. North, "Violence: Interpersonal, Inter-group and International," (mimeo) 15 pp., March, 1968.

_____, Robert C. North, "Alternate Futures for Society: Certain Variables and Parameters" (mimeo), presented at 47th Annual Meeting of American Orthopsychiatric Association, March, 1970, 34 pp.

- _____, Prospectus "Teaching about War and Peace" (mimeo) 1967-1970
- _____, Workshop Report, First Meeting of War/Peace Curriculum Implementation Committee, January 30-31, 1970.
- _____, Workshop Report, Third Meeting of War/Peace Curriculum Implementation Committee, May 22, 1970.
- _____, Wilson Vandell, M.D., "Teaching about Conflict as it Relates to War" (mimeo) October 1969, 29 pp.
- Buckworth-Barker, Vernon, Breakthrough to Tomorrow, United Nations Centre for Economic and Social Information, United Nations, N.Y., 1970.
- Ebel, Robert L., ed. Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (4th Edition, The MacMillan Company, New York, N.Y., 1969)
- Fenton, Edwin, The New Social Studies, National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 51, No. 317, March 1967 (Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York, N.Y.)
- Foreign Policy Association, New Dimensions, No. 1, 1968, "Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom" (New York, N.Y.)
- _____, New Dimensions, No.4, "International Education for Spaceship Earth" (New York, N.Y.)
- Friends Committee on National Legislation, Washington Newsletter, March 1971.
- Gage, N.L., ed., Handbook of Research on Teaching (Rand, McNally and Co., Chicago, Ill., 1963)
- Gall, Morris, "Space Age Curriculum," Social Education, 34, no.1, January 1970, p.60-2.
- Gearon, John D., "A Critique of Response to the Kaplan-Gordon Critique," Social Education, Vol. 31, No.5, May 1967, p.385-7.
- Goldman, Ralph M., "Self-Identity in the Context of War and Peace," (mimeo) (Diablo Valley Education Project, December 1969) 25 pp.
- Graham, Hugh D. and Ted R. Gurr, "Violence in America," Historical and Comparative Perspective, Vol. II. A Report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. (Bantam Books, New York, N.Y., June 1969)
- Gross, Richard E., et al, The Problems Approach and the Social Studies, NCSS Curriculum series, no. 9 rev., 1960 (Washington, D.C.)

- Hess, Robert D. and David Easton, "The Role of the Elementary School in Political Socialization," School Review, Vol. 70, No. 3, Autumn 1962, p.257-265.
- Hart, Maurice P. and Lawrence E. Metcalf, Teaching High School Social Studies (Harper & Row, New York, N.Y., 1968)
- Intercom, James M. Becker, "Teaching World Affairs Tomorrow," Vol. 9, No. 5, September-October 1967, p.26-85.
- _____, "Education on War/Peace, Conflict, and Change," Vol. 12, No.3, December 1970, p.20-48.
- Jacobs, Ruth H., "The Why of War," War/Peace Report, Vol. 10, No.8, October 1970, p.10-11.
- Johns, Eunice, ed., Social Studies in the Senior High School, NCSS Curriculum series, no.7, 1953 (Washington, D.C.)
- Kaplan, Alice J. and Martin S. Gordon, "A Critique of 'War or Peace: a Simulation Game,'" Social Education, Vol. 31, No.5, May 1967, p.383-5.
- Kelman, Herbert C., "Education for the Concept of a Global Society," Social Education, Vol. 32, No. 7, November 1968, p.661-6.
- Kenworthy, Leonard S., Guide to Social Studies Teaching (Wadsworth Publishing Company, Belmont, California, 1962)
- Kirkland, Olin, On Conflict: a curriculum unit (mimeo), pre-publication copy (Diablo Valley Education Project, Orinda, California, 1970) 87 pp.
- Long, Harold M. and Robert N. King, Improving the Teaching of World Affairs: The Glen Falls Story, NCSS Bulletin no. 35 (Washington, D.C., 1964)
- Lynch, Robert, "The Thorpe Syllabus," Media & Methods, October, 1969, p.42-44.
- MacCloskey, Brig. Gen. Menro, USAF (ret.), Pacts for Peace, (Richards Rosen Press, Inc., New York, N.Y. 1967)
- Mazur, Allan, "A Nonrational Approach to Theories of Conflict and Coalitions," J. of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 12, No. 2, June 1968, p.196-205.
- Massialas, Byron G., "Selecting a Social Studies Textbook," Social Education, Vol. 25, No. 5, May 1961, p.257-8.

- _____, ed., The Indiana Experiments in Inquiry: Social Studies, Bulletin of the School of Education, Vol. 39, No.3, May 1963 (Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.)
- Massialas, Byron G. and Frederick R. Smith, eds., Current Research in Social Studies, Bulletin of the School of Education, Vol.40, No.2, March, 1964 (Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.)
- McClelland, Charles A., "Selecting and Processing Information in World Affairs Education," Social Education, Vol. 32, No. 7, November 1968, p.667-9.
- Mehlinger, Howard D., "Enlarging the International Component of the High School Social Studies Curriculum," Social Education, Vol. 32, No. 7, November 1968, p.681-5.
- Metcalf, Lawrence E., "An Interdisciplinary Approach to Peace and World Order," Media & Methods, October 1969, p.36-39.
- Morrissett, Irving, ed., Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula (Holt, Rinehard & Winston, New York, N.Y., 1967)
- National Education Association, Committee on International Relations, Education for International Understanding in American Schools (Washington, D.C., 1948)
- _____, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the U.S., (Washington, D.C., 1967)
- New Dimensions, No.1, 1968, "Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom" (Foreign Policy Association, New York, N.Y.)
- _____, No.4, "International Education for Spaceship Earth" (Foreign Policy Association, New York, N.Y.)
- North, Robert C., "Violence: Interpersonal, Intergroup and International" (mimeo) (Diablo Valley Education Project, March, 1968) 15 pp.
- _____, "Alternate Futures for Society: Certain Variables and Parameters" (mimeo) (Diablo Valley Education Project, March, 1970) 34 pp.
- Oliver, Donald and Susan Baker, "The Case Method," Social Education, Vol. 23, No. 1, January 1959, p.25-8.
- Oregon, State Department of Education, Understanding the Nature of Communism (1963)

Oregonian, Sunday, November 23, 1969, p.13.

Portland Public Schools, Instructional Guide (1967)(Portland, Oregon)

Price, Roy A., New Viewpoints in Social Studies, 28th Yearbook, National Council for Social Studies (Washington, D.C., 1958)

_____, ed., Needed Research in Teaching of the Social Studies, NCSS Research Bulletin, no.1, 1963 (Washington, D.C.)

Reardon, Betty, "A Unit on Peace and World Order: Prologue," Media & Methods, October 1969, p.33-36.

Rusk, Dean, The Unseen Search for Peace, Department of State Publication 7985 (G.P.O., Washington, D.C., 1965) 26 pp.

Sanders, Norris M. and Marlin L. Tanck, "A Critical Appraisal of Twenty-six National Social Studies Projects," Social Education, Vol. 34, No. 4, April 1970, p. 383-449.

Shaver, James P., "Reflective Thinking, Values and Social Studies Textbooks," School Review, Vol. 73, 1965, p.226-257.

Social Education, "Peace through World Law," (Special issue), Vol.26, No. 7, November 1962, p.363-404.

Student Forum on International Order and World Peace, A Proposal: To Meet the Crisis in World Affairs Education (1865 Broadway, New York, N.Y.10023) 1969

_____, Studies Toward Peace, A Compendium of Selected Undergraduate and Graduate Courses in Peace and World Order (New York, N.Y., 1969)

Taylor, Harold, ed., Conference on World Education (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., 1966)

_____, The World and the American Teacher (AACTE, Washington, D.C., 1968)

UNESCO, Education for International Understanding (Paris, 1959)

United Nations, Yearbook, 1966 (Office of Public Information, New York, 1968)

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Education for Freedom and World Understanding, (Conference held March 26-28, 1962 (G.P.O., Washington, D.C.)

- _____, Institute of International Studies, International Educational Development Program (G.P.O., Washington, D.C., 1969)
- _____, Institute of International Studies, Inventory of Federal Programs involving Educational Activities concerned with Improving International Understanding and Cooperation (G.P.O., Washington, D.C., June 1969)
- West, Edith, ed., Improving the Teaching of World History, NCSS, 20th Yearbook (Washington, D.C., 1950)
- Woodley, Celeste, "Media and the New Social Studies," Social Education, Vol. 34, No. 4, April 1970, p. 451-5.
- World Almanac, 1970 Edition (Doubleday & Company, New York, N.Y.)
- World Law Fund, Priscilla Griffith and Betty Reardon, eds., Let us Examine Our Attitude Toward Peace (11 W. 42nd St., New York, N.Y., 1968)
- _____, "Ways and Means of Teaching about World Order," Nos. 1-6, Fall 1969 - Spring 1971 (pamphlet)
- _____, "World Law Fund Progress Report," Vol. 2, No. 1, Winter 1970 (pamphlet)
- Yandell, Wilson, "Teaching about Conflict as it relates to War" (mimeo) (Diablo Valley Education Project, October 1969) 29 pp.

APPENDIX

GLOSSARY

Bilateral program - foreign assistance extended directly from one country to another.

Concepts - selected broad principles or categories to which a variety of subject matter can be related and analyzed.
A useful organizing device for making comparisons open-ended.

Global - related to the earth as an ecological, finite system; "international" in the sense of common to all nations and individuals.

Inquiry (or discovery) method - a teaching process in which the student takes initiative in searching out relationships of ideas and data, through inductive and deductive reasoning.

International - relations between nations, usually carried out by organizations identified either with a single nation or on a multi-nation basis.

Multilateral program - foreign assistance extended through an organization based on representation from a number of countries, regionally or world-wide.

Social science - refers to the disciplines related to human society that lend themselves to scientific research, e.g. economics, sociology, psychology, political science, history, anthropology, geography.

Social studies - refers to the study of human society and its values, including citizenship and cultural understanding.

Values - basic ideas considered desirable by the individual or society; of special interest here are those related to change, conflict, authority, order, responsibility, and freedom.

Trans-national - relations or problems across national boundaries dealt with independently of national governments, as multi-national corporations or professional societies.

CURRICULA MATERIALS - SOURCES

1. American Education Publications, Public Issues series, by Donald W. Oliver and Fred M. Newman (adapted from the Harvard Social Studies Project), Education Center, Columbus, Ohio 43216.

Taking a Stand: A Guide to Clear Discussion of Public Issues
Twentieth Century Russia: Agents of the Revolution
Community Change: Law, Politics, and Social Attitudes (1968)
Communist China: Communal Progress & Individual Freedom
Nazi Germany: Social Forces and Personal Responsibility
Colonial Kenya: Cultures in Conflict
Revolution & World Politics: The Search for National Independence (1970)
Limits of War: National Policy & World Conscience (1970)
Organizations among Nations: The Search for World Order (1970)
Diplomacy & International Law: Alternatives to War
Science & Public Policy: Uses and Control of Knowledge

For 12th grade. Unit booklets are 50-60 pp. and include case history vignettes.

2. Association of American Geographers, High School Geography Project, (University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado), Macmillan Co., 1970.

Titles are:

City Location and Growth	Cultural Geography
Manufacturing and Agriculture	Political Geography
Habitat and Resources	Japan

3. Beyer, Barry K., Project Africa, Carnegie-Mellon University, Pittsburgh, 1969. (Scheduled for completion in mid-1970.)

Africa South of the Sahara

4. Brown, Richard H., Committee on the Study of History, New Dimensions in American History, D.C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1965, and Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Menlo Park, California, 1970.

Thirteen titles which include:

The Monroe Doctrine
Hiroshima: A Study in Science, Politics and the Ethics of War
Liberty and Law: The Nature of Individual Rights
The Gospel of Work: A Study of Values and Value Change
Korea and the Limits of Limited War

Imperialism and the Dilemma of Power
 The U.S., the League of Nations, and Collective Security
 Collective Security in the 1930s: The Failure of Men or
 the Failure of a Principle?

The "Amherst project" materials are intended for the 11th grade.

5. Engle, Shirley and Howard Mehlinger, High School Curriculum Center in Government, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. Available through ERIC after March 1970. Publication projected for 1972.

American Political Behavior: Book I, Pilot Version (mimeo),
 John Patrick and Howard Mehlinger, eds., 1968 - Grade 9

6. Diablo Valley Education Project, "Teaching about War & Peace," Center for War/Peace Studies, 50 Vashell Way, Orinda, Calif.

On Conflict: a Curriculum Unit, Olin Kirkland, 1970
 (Pre-publication copy, mimeo). Designed for 8 weeks unit or as 11 sub-units dealing with conflict, violence, war and inter-state approaches which can be integrated into existing courses in Civics, U.S. History, World History, Sociology, Psychology or International Relations. Combines game and inquiry approaches. Grades 9 - 12.

Multi-media Instructional kits - topics include the Cuban Missile Crisis, dissent and foreign policy, dissent and minority groups, arms control and disarmament. Each kit (15 - 25 pp.) contains annotated listings of basic paperback books, pamphlets, articles, films and video tapes, audio-materials, displays and simulation games. For experimental use by Mt. Diablo Unified School District.

7. Forerunner Series, Fellowship Publications, Box 271, Nyack, N.Y.

"What do you Mean Nonviolence?" - The Story of Wars with Peaceful Weapons, by Sue Gottfried
 "Revolution and You" - The Story of the Rising Expectations of the World's Peoples, by Sidney Lens

8. Fenton, Edwin (Carnegie-Mellon Project), Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., New York, N.Y. (1968)

Grade 9 - Comparative Economic Systems, an Inquiry Approach
 Grade 10 - The Shaping of Western Society; Tradition and Change in Four Societies
 Grade 11 - A New History of the U.S.
 Grade 12 - Introduction to the Behavioral Sciences; The Humanities in Three Cities

9. Field, G.L., Growth of Civilization, London: MacMillan, 1966.
(used by UN International School)
10. Foreign Policy Association, 345 E. 46 St., New York, N.Y. 10017

Headline Series (published 5 times/year). \$1.00 ea.
For 12th grade.

Our China Policy: The Need for Change - A. Doak Barnett (1971)
Western Germany enters the 70s - Richard L. & Anna J. Merritt
(1971)
The Soviet Union: Toward Confrontation or Coexistence? -
John A. Armstrong (1970)
Technology and World Power - Victor Basiuk (1970)
The Multinational Corporation - Sidney E. Rolfe (1970)
American Foreign Aid: Strategy for the 1970s - Max Millikan
(1969)
The UN and World Order - Lincoln P. Bloomfield (1969)

Nationalization of the Suez Canal Co., 1956: A Case Study in
Analyzing News Accounts. Kit for 34 students, including
teachers guide and discussion questions. \$2.50

New Dimension Series (as of January 1971 will be published by
by Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 201 Park Ave. S., New York, N.Y. 10003)
\$1.00 ea.

No.1 Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom
No.2 Foreign News and World Views
 Provides background and ideas for using newspapers
 in the classroom.
No.3 Teaching the Comparative Approach to American Studies
No.4 International Education for Spaceship Earth

A Selected Bibliography on International Education. Available
from School Services, FPA.
11. Hanvey, Robert, The Age of Megaton. Doubleday Multimedia,
Garden City, New York 11530. A 21 minute filmstrip with
teacher's guide and pulsed record (\$15) or tape cassette (\$16).
12. The Hiroshima Declaration, a discussion and statement of "Condi-
tions for Peace in the Nuclear Age" by an international group
and a group of Hiroshima citizens. Order from Committee of
Hiroshima Conference, c/o Peace Memorial Hall, Peace Park,
Hiroshima, Japan. 12 pp. in English and Japanese. 10¢
13. Intercom, "The Human Person and the War System," January-
February 1971. (Center for War/Peace Studies, 218 East 18th St.,
New York, N.Y. 10003) \$1.50

Articles suitable for classroom unit:

"The Battle of Algiers," by Margaret Carter

"Michael Scott, An Individual in the International System," by Betty Reardon

Also film guides, and statements on teaching methodology relevant to the Nuremburg principles, the rights of individuals under international law, and the basic problem of war in an emerging world society.

14. MATCH Project. For elementary grades.

Kresse, Frederick H. & Ruth Green, eds., The City. (Boston: The Children's Museum and American Science & Engineering, Inc., 1969)

Olson, Nancy and Susan Kaye, A House of Ancient Greece. (Boston: American Science & Engineering, Inc., 1969)

15. Meyers, Ralph, Confrontation. School Marketing, Inc., 572 Madison Ave., New York, N.Y. 10022.

Four sound filmstrips, a simulation game, 35 press booklets, teacher's guide and bibliography. \$150.

16. Michaelis, John U., World Studies Inquiry Series, University of California at Berkeley.

Units on Africa, Asia, Latin America, published in 1969 by Field Educational Publications, Inc., 609 Mission, San Francisco, California 94105.

17. North Central Association of Colleges & Secondary Schools, Foreign Relations Project booklets. Room 740, 53 West Jackson Blvd., Chicago, Ill. 60603. Published by Laidlaw Bros.

18. New York Times, filmstrip series on contemporary problems includes one on Disarmament (1971), N.Y. Times Book & Educational Division, 229 W. 43rd St., New York, N.Y. 10036.

19. Pickus, Robert and Robert Woito, To End War, Harper & Row, New York, N.Y., 1970.

20. Price, Roy A., Major Concepts for Social Studies, Social Studies Curriculum Center, 409 Maxwell Hall, Syracuse Univ., Syracuse, N.Y. 13210.

21. Project CUE, Division of Educational Communication, N.Y. State Education Department, Albany, N.Y. 12224.

22. The Road Game, an interdisciplinary game combining social psychology and art to illustrate implications of a competitive

mind-set for interpersonal and international relations.
Herder & Herder, 232 Madison Ave., New York, N.Y. 10016.
95¢ Grades 4 - 14.

23. Sociological Resources for the Social Studies, American Sociological Association (Allyn & Bacon, Inc., Boston, 1969, 1970)

Social Inquiry series:

Incidence and Effects of Poverty in the United States
Testing for Truth
Leadership in American Society
Social Change: The Case of Rural China

24. Stonier, Tom, Nuclear Disaster, Meridian paperback, 1964.

25. United Nations Office of Public Information, United Nations, N.Y. 10017.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights
International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms
of Racial Discrimination
Geneva Protocol, and others

26. University of Texas Curriculum Project on Latin America,
Clark C. Gill and William B. Conroy, co-directors. Informa-
tion through ERIC, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

Titles include:

Teaching about Latin America in the Elementary School: An
Annotated Guide to Instructional Resources (40 pp.) 1967
Teaching about Latin America in the Secondary School: An
Annotated Guide to Instructional Resources (71 pp.) 1967
The Social Scientists look at Latin America: Six position
papers (174 pp.) 1967

27. Williams, G., Portrait of World History, London: Arnold, 1962.
(used by UN International School)

28. World Law Fund, 11 W. 42nd St., New York, N.Y. 10036.

"Ways and Means of Teaching about World Order," a quarterly
newsletter, a service to teachers prepared by the School
Program of WLF.

Let us Examine our Attitude toward Peace, Priscilla Griffith
and Betty Reardon, eds. A booklet of readings by John F.
Kennedy, Jerome Frank, Nikita Khrushchev, Lin Piao, Pope
John XXIII and others on psychological and political
barriers to world peace. 47 pp. \$1.00. For grades 11-14.

The Thorpe Syllabus: The Problems of Peace & War in the Modern World, Gerald Thorpe. A 12 week unit for 12th grade or older. Sept. 1968 (mimeo) 40 pp. Revised syllabus, 1971.

"Peace Games," Betty Reardon and Gerald Thorpe. Reprint from American Association of University Women Journal, May 1970. Describes 3 models for UN peacekeeping procedures and a scenario for testing the models. For 11-30 players.

"The Nuremburg Trial," Jurgen L. Henningsen, August 1968 (mimeo)

"The Shimoda Case," Robert Stephen, Jr., March 1968 (mimeo)

"Peacekeeping: Problems and Possibilities," Jack R. Fraenkel, Margaret Carter and Betty Reardon. A preliminary experimental booklet which examines four models for peacekeeping. Cases used in studying models are Ethiopia, Congo, Cuba, and a futuristic case. For grades 8-10. \$1.00

Learning about War and Peace. Newly revised course for 11th and 12th grades offered at Nathan Hale High School in Seattle, Washington. Includes, among other things, excerpts from literature, the theater, and science fiction. (1971)

Disarmament and Aggression. A course for seniors devised at the UN International School in New York City as part of their special United Nations Studies Program. (1971)

Fluid Geography. A transnationally devised unit with a global perspective, for middle school level. (1971)

Junior High School Course, taught at Chief Joseph Junior High School, Richland, Washington. For grades 8 - 10. Culminates in a sound-and-light show on war and peace designed and presented by the students. (1971)